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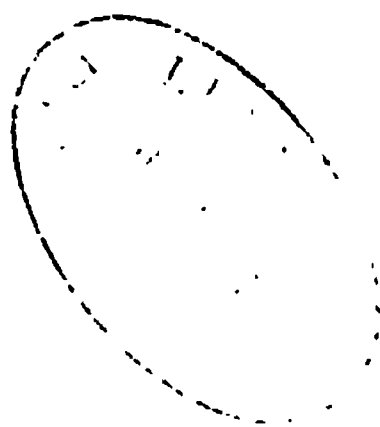
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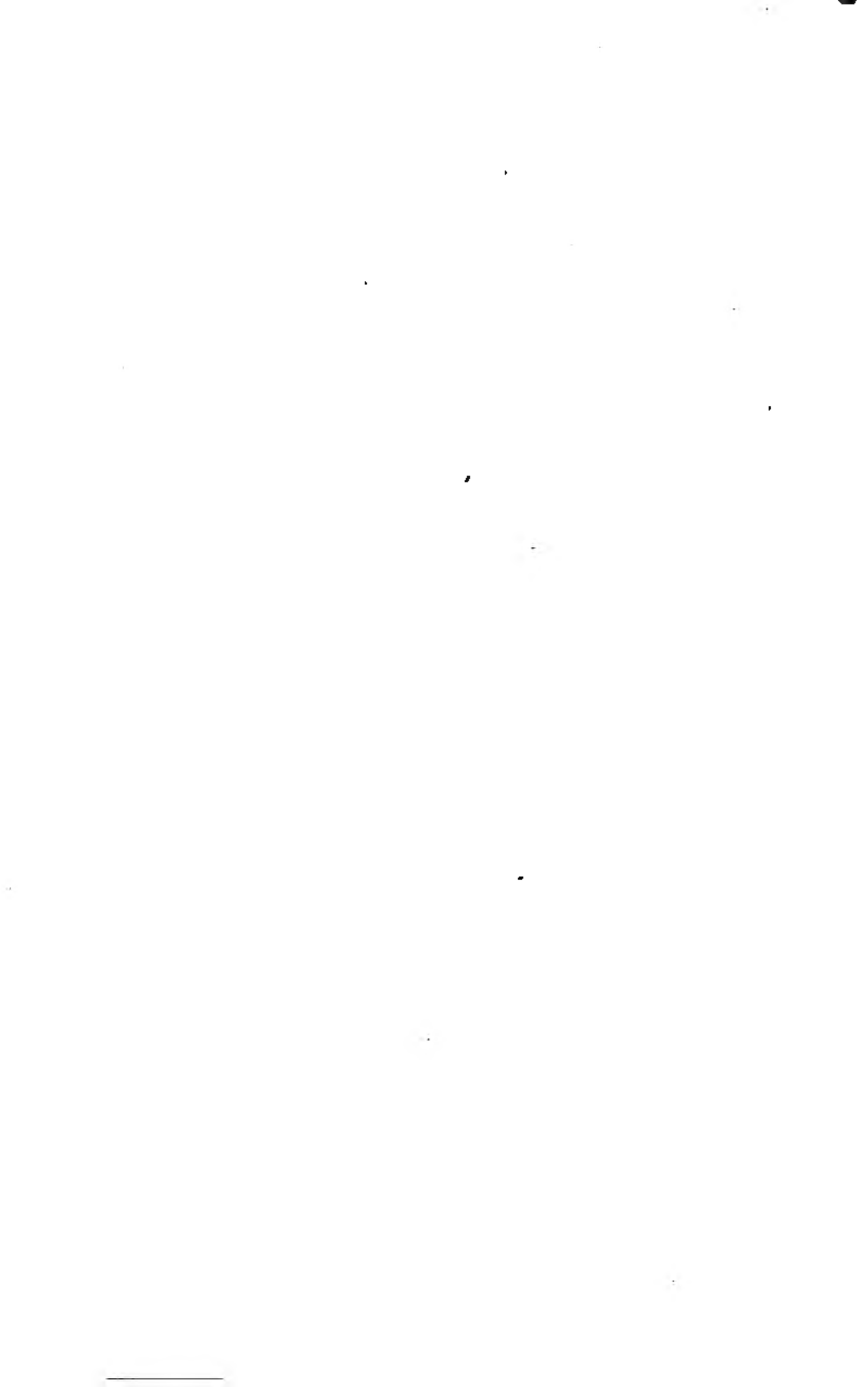
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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

JULY, 1841.

ART. I.—THE MISSISSIPPI SCHEME.

IN the spring of 1716, a few months after the death of Louis XIV., there was established in the house of a Scotch banker in Paris, an institution which lifted France from the distress which had arisen from a century of war; and which, when a few months more were passed, cast her into a bankruptcy which was only relieved by the destruction of the system that induced it. In the Spanish wars of Louis XIV., which wasted the most profuse taxation on foreign troops in a foreign country, may be found the source of the complete prostration which was experienced under his successor. The terrible revolution that followed, was hastened by the ruinous expedients which were taken to conceal the debt which had been thus created, and which doubled its principal under cloak of paying its interest. The people were involved as stockholders or as note-owners in a bank, which, as soon as it had sucked in their investments, shut its flood-gates, and locked up in its basin the wealth which it had thus obtained. We propose at present to consider, in the first place, the rapid steps by which the Mississippi Scheme achieved that wonderful victory over the laws of credit and the customs of trade, which placed under the control of its projector the entire resources of the kingdom; and in the second place, the steps, even still more rapid, by which, after the victory was won, and the capital of the state secreted in the coffers of the Scotch banking-house, the fabric gave way, and involved those who had taken shelter under it in a ruin from which they could only extricate themselves by the overthrow of the dynasty under which it had been produced.

John Law was born in 1671, and before he was of age, had spent the patrimonial estate which the prudence and thrift of his ancestors had amassed. He sold his lands in Lauriston, though in a quarter from which he afterward received them discharged of the incumbrances to which they had been subjected, and entered, as soon as the restraint of his wardship could be cast aside, into the whirl of London dissipation. The fondness for game, which in the sequel of his life displayed itself still more destructively, led him into a series of embarrassments, which forced him at last to leave the country as a culprit. He was involved in a quarrel which terminated in his killing his antagonist, and as the circumstances were such

as could afford little palliation on the ground of passion or heedlessness, he was found guilty, in April, 1694, of murder. As was usual, however, in such cases, and as may have been anticipated by the jury themselves, his connections found themselves powerful enough to secure a majority of the privy council, and a petition for his pardon was presented to the king, backed with influence which could not be resisted. But the family of the murdered man were unable to appreciate the reasons which could be brought in to stay the ordinary course of justice in a case so ripe for her consideration, and an appeal, according to the forms of the old English law, was lodged in the Court of King's Bench, the necessary result of which was that Mr. Law was carried back again to prison to wait till the first judicial tribunal in the kingdom had pronounced on his case. But finding that the exceptions to the proceeding which he offered to the court were immediately overruled, he thought it better to avoid the doubtful issue thus presented, and by the aid of gold within, and the intrigues of his high-born friends without, succeeded in escaping to the continent, having acquired all the lustre which a triumphant duel in those times could throw around him, without running into the martyrdom by which it was so often followed. In Amsterdam, where he first emerged, after the long obscurity into which the circumstances of his escape had involved him, he officiated for a time as secretary to the British resident, and through the advantages thus opened to him, obtained an intimate acquaintance with the celebrated bank there situated, which at that time exercised so mysterious an influence on the monetary system. He returned to Scotland at the commencement of the seventeenth century, at a time when the country was plunged in the deepest commercial distresses, and when, through the suspension of the banks, and the consequent scarcity of specie, the currency of the kingdom was frozen in its channels. Under the support of the first Duke of Argyle, of the Marquis of Tweeddale, and other powerful Scotch noblemen of the day, he offered to the imperial parliament a plan which he styled "a proposal for supplying the nation with money." In the work which was meant to be the key to the scheme itself, he entered at large into the subject of banking and of the currency, and filled up with the most gorgeous coloring the outline which he had previously laid down. The ancient monetary system was to be abolished. Gold and silver must cease to be the medium of exchange. How can they adapt themselves, he argued, to the exigencies of trade? Our commerce extends every day, but if it is stretched out and nailed down on a rack so contracted as that which is afforded by a metallic circulation, how will it bring itself to bear on the points where it is needed, and how will its resources be brought into the necessary action? Forgetting that as trade became wider, and the objects of investment multiplied, the medium, whatever it might be, would increase in value till the same proportion was maintained that had previously existed, he assumed that the precious metals in the kingdom would become grossly inadequate in another revolution to the purposes of circulation, and insisted, therefore, that a medium should be sought which should be both more intrinsically valuable, and more capable of adaptation. The objections which bear against a metallic currency, he fancied would not operate against a paper circulation based upon the landed credit of Great Britain. The allodium of the realm remaining in the king, who was, in theory at least, lord paramount, and the moneyed interests being represented by the commons, it was proposed that parliament should appoint commissioners,

into whose hands should be thrown the kingdom in the shape of a vast farm, on the credit of which they were to issue notes, whose circulation was to be enforced by statutes which would make them the sole medium of exchange. Being secured on landed property, and bound not only to the credit, but to the actual existence of the country, he maintained that they would speedily drive gold and silver from the market, and finally, by running over the Channel, and becoming the basis on which the continental currency would be regulated, they would in the end secure to Great Britain the entire command of the moneyed interests of Europe.

But the house of commons were not prepared for a measure which would throw the property of the realm, by a general escheat, into the hands of the crown. A resolution was immediately passed, declaring "that to establish any kind of paper credit, so as to oblige it to pass, was an improper expedient for the nation." The old whig party, which had not then been wheeled from the vantage ground on which the revolution had placed it, refused peremptorily to consent to a scheme which would carry England two centuries back, and place her in the midst of the feudal system. The old tory party was looking from its high observatory to the green shores of France, and there saw gathering a little army, whose progress they eagerly watched, and whose advent they devoutly prayed for. But how could the Pretender, leaning on his bare sword, conquer the moneyed colossus that would issue forth to meet him? The tories, consequently, were unwilling to concur in any measure which would throw the entire resources of the kingdom in the hands of the ruling establishment; and both parties agreed in rejecting a scheme which would be so equally prejudicial to the treason which the first were nourishing, and the liberties which the others had obtained.

It is probable that Mr. Law became disgusted with the dulness of a nation who were unable to seize upon speculations of such gigantic dimensions with sufficient avidity to throw them into play. He felt that it would require a warmer sun to ripen his plans, and constitutions more inflammable to receive them. In the splendid scenes of a Roman carnival, he found his mind wrought up to a pitch which adapted it for the construction of those wild but splendid plans which a little while after, in the chivalry of the Parisian court, he found dispositions sanguine enough to espouse. To the king of Sardinia he is said first to have offered the benefits of the panacea which was afterward brought to bear on the more cumbrous body of the French empire; but that monarch modestly declined being made the subject on whom the experiment should be tried, and recommended the speculatist to turn his attention to a theatre more suitable to the execution of such vast designs. Louis XIV. had just died, having left behind him a kingdom impoverished by the empty schemes of personal distinction, with which he had spent a reign the longest and the most auspicious which had ever fallen to a French monarch. The provinces which he had spent his treasury in conquering, had been snatched from him by Marlborough before he had paid from their profits a single year's interest on the debt which it had cost him to buy them. All industry had been checked, because the poor man's wages were insufficient to buy the necessaries whose price had been doubled by imposts; all manufactures were stopped, because the producer found that the demand for his staples had ceased; and commerce was rapidly sinking, because the nation which could not raise its domestic necessaries, could not find money to squander on foreign luxury. The fields and the granaries of the kingdom were shorn and

emptied, and were converted into one great poorhouse, in which the peasantry collected themselves in hecatombs to expiate, in a summary way, the crimes of the great monarch who had just immortalized them. Under the regency of the Duke of Orleans, in the minority of Louis XV., it was proposed to suffer a national bankruptcy at once, so as to throw off at a toss, from the shoulders of the nation, the terrible load which was grinding it to the dust. That vast crash of credit, which succeeded fifty years afterward, when all means of alleviation had been tried and failed, was on the brink of taking place at the beginning, when the desperation of the evil was first discovered. The regent, however, in honor to a name which would otherwise have little to recommend it, refused his assent to so grand a fraud, and instituted at once a commission, or *vista*, for the investigation of the demands against the state. A day was appointed on which all claims were to be heard; and at once, from the office of every capitalist in Europe, from the treasuries of the German principalities, from the dens of the proscribed Jews, there started up creditors who pounced upon the quarry with an eagerness which shook the whole fabric of the government. The debt in gross was found to amount to two thousand millions of livres, which at twenty-eight livres to the marc of standard silver, (two pounds sterling,) was equal to one hundred and forty-two millions sterling. As stated by Stewart in his Political Economy, (vol. II., p. 236,) seventeen hundred and fifty millions of livres of the whole amount were settled in various funds at four per cent interest; while the creditors of the remaining two hundred and fifty millions were satisfied with what were called *billets d'etat*, of the same interest. But the distressed condition of the kingdom prevented the collection of a revenue sufficiently extended to defray so vast a drain as the interest thus created, and the government found itself in a position, in which, like that of King Charles before the revolution, it was obliged to resort to the most odious usurpations, and the most refined frauds, to meet the current expenses of the day.

It was in France that Mr. Law found a stage opening of dimensions sufficiently extended for his great designs. The old essay on money and trade, which had first been used as a means of influencing the British parliament, had been translated, and spiced with illustrations which made it more suitable to its new purposes, and presented to the consideration of the French court. Assuming that the prosperity of a people increases in proportion to the amount of the money circulating among them, he made use of those great resources which his long acquaintance with banking had afforded him, to show that as specie can never be increased beyond a certain mark, it is necessary to resort to paper money, and to paper money whose value should be arbitrarily fixed, to carry the state onward in those necessary improvements which the increase of its population and of its wants would suggest. The Bank of Amsterdam, he argued, had increased its circulation widely beyond the narrow limits of its specie, because it based its emissions on its great landed estate, and its greater commercial securities; and could not the government of France, by the erection of its treasury into a banking capital, and its taxes into a permanent revenue, become the master of its own currency, and create and model it as was most beneficial to its interests? What splendid prospects would then open to the occupant of a throne, who by a single nod could double at once both the currency and the prosperity of his kingdom, and, by the issue of a series of paper slips, buy, in the ordinary course of commerce, countries, to

which the provinces which it had striven for in other times through fire and blood, should be trifles? But loose and romantic as were the views of the counsellors of Louis XV., there was something in the scheme of the Scotch theorist which was too startling to admit of its immediate adoption. The reasoning appeared to them very just, and the advantages very striking, but the bait was so glittering that they suspected that a hook must lay behind it. In the preamble of the letters patent of the French king, dated 2d May, 1716, it is stated in sum, that Mr. Law had formally proposed his plan to the government, and that they agreed on its entire validity and advantage, but thought, under the advice of the most prominent of their counsellors, that the present conjuncture was not suitable for its development. Mr. Law, however, was allowed to set up a private bank, in the Place de Louis le Grand, which was to be built entirely on funds furnished by himself, and by those who should voluntarily enter into the subscription, and from which he promised, in a proportionate degree, those great results which he had sketched out as the consequences of the erection of a national institution.

The constitutions of the first English joint-stock companies were formed very much on the model of the celebrated institution which was thus established. Had Mr. Law's bank been allowed to sail as she was launched, she would without doubt have made her voyage with safety, and greatly to the advantage of those who were concerned in the adventure. We cannot imagine a more safe construction, for an institution which must from the want of a distinct charter be obliged to lean on its natural resources, than that which was adopted by the Scotch banking establishment, before it was taken under the fostering wings of the state. Its stock was to consist of 1200 *actions*, or shares, of 1000 crowns, or 5000 livres each, which amounted, individually, according to the denomination then fixed by law, to £250; so that the whole stock was worth £800,000. The liberty of subscription was made general, and letters patent were issued by the government, at the request of the bank authorities, which declared that the securities belonging to, and the funds deposited by foreigners, should be exonerated from any confiscation or imposition whatever in case of war between the nation to which they belonged, and that under which the bank was constituted. Two general courts were to be held yearly, in which an exposition of the state of the institution was to be given by the officers, to be discussed and acted upon by the proprietors themselves. The proprietors consisted of the stockholders of the bank, whose individual influence was graduated according to the shares they held. Every stockholder who owned five shares was possessed of a vote, and for every five more shares that he acquired, another vote was placed to his account. The election of officers, the valuation of the dividends, the investment of the funds, and the distribution of the surplus of the bank, was subject by the constitution to the control of a majority of the proprietors, or in fact, to the wishes of those who held the greater part of the stock. The accounts were to be balanced twice a year, and as such published generally throughout the market. The notes were intended to be issued only to the extent of the specie or the landed estate in the possession of the proprietors; and as they were made payable at sight, they obtained a rapid circulation in a country which had been flooded with the irredeemable scrip of government securities. The bank was excluded from all commercial

transactions whatever, and was tied down, by rules which admitted of no evasion, to the narrow provinces of circulation and of deposit.

Mr. Law did not hesitate to declare in public that a banker merited the punishment of death, if he issued notes without an exact equivalent in his vaults. The most favorable exposition was made at the first general court of the prospects of the institution, and so great was the confidence excited, not only by the warm expressions of the founder, but by his plausible statements, that in the course of a few months the notes passed current at one per cent beyond the value of specie itself. The taxes which formerly were transmitted at great expense from extremity to centre, were sent through post with little difficulty, in the shape of this newly stamped paper. Paris had before drained from the provinces, by means of the royal revenue, the entire amount of their specie, so that they were reduced to the greatest distress by the annual requisitions of the collectors: under the new economy, notes were passed to and fro without exhausting the one, or throwing a diseased fulness into the other. The balance of exchange with England and Holland, which had formerly been so depressed that sometimes fifty per cent was paid for drafts by travellers going from Paris to London, changed so completely, that it came now to be four or five per cent in favor of the French capital. It would seem that a sudden thaw had broken up the icy chains which had till then bound up the commercial system of the empire, and in a moment its channels become gay with life, while on their bosoms floated to and fro, in sudden activity, vessels whose movements restored at once its lost circulation.

But the Duke of Orleans, who as regent held the reins of the kingdom, by no means relished the prosperity of an institution, whose failure he had confidently anticipated. It had been usual in former times, whenever a merchant became rich while the crown remained poor, for the public informers to discover that the merchant was a Jew, and that therefore his goods became a just confiscation to the Christian government under which he lived; it became congenial to the policy of the regent to renovate the exhausted vigor of his finances by a similar inoculation, and he at once declared his intention of transferring the legers of the bank into the treasury department of the state. By an act of council, bearing date 4th December, 1718, the stockholders were informed that the king had taken Mr. Law's bank under his protection; that his majesty had reimbursed to the original proprietors their shares; and that he had assumed as a national debt the outstanding notes, amounting in fact to fifty-five millions of livres. The same stipulations which had formerly been made, were renewed on the credit of the king, with the simple difference that *then* they were made in the name of merchants whose estates were involved in their good faith—*now*, in that of a government who had become so habituated to deception, that it was expected from them on all sides, and had been calculated on by themselves.

It was as a government measure that was opened that great scheme for colonizing the valley of the Mississippi, which a few years after made the French people bankrupt. Mr. Law was continued at the head of the institution, but he found that he was no longer a private banker, who was dogged in his motions by a band of cautious proprietors, but that he had become the unlimited master of an establishment of boundless resources, with the whole influence of the monarchy in his hands, and the theatre of both continents stretched out before him. As a first stroke, the bank

threw out two billions of livres in paper based on government credit, without even the hypothecation of a tax, or the establishment of a security ; and on this gigantic basis, the comptroller-general commenced his movements. He laid his hands upon the colonies, the revenues, the prerogatives of the crown, as a capital in gross upon which there was to be issued a currency which should be in essence irredeemable. A five livre note might be emitted on the basis of an obscure tax, or a distant fishery ; and should it be presented at the treasury for redemption, the holder would have been sent to the St. Lawrence for its realization. A commercial company was erected, who became the shadowy representation of the bank itself, or rather of the colossus who stood at its head, to whom was granted the country of Louisiana, then described by the most exaggerated limits, and embracing in its boundaries provinces which were painted as the most cultivated and the most fertile in creation. The map was studded with gold mines, and the speculator who glanced over the scheme that was hung up in the royal treasury, could no longer hesitate to advance his capital on securities which were safer than the mint which they were to supply. 200,000 actions, or shares, rated at 500 livres each, were at once issued, and their value immediately increased in the most exorbitant degree. They were looked upon as the titles of unlimited wealth, and their price consequently was only limited by the amount of money in the market. The valley of the Mississippi was surveyed into lots of the most fantastic dimensions, so that the fancy of the capitalist was consulted as to the proposed condition of his estate, and the diagrams of Euclid were exhausted in furnishing patterns for the new investments. A square league in Louisiana, even in its most unknown regions, could rarely be bought at less than 80,000 livres ; and sometimes the mineral productions of particular neighborhoods became so highly extolled, that they rose to a price much beyond that of the most cultivated lands in France itself.

The Company of the Indies, as it was generally styled, finding itself at a loss for money to defray its current expenses, determined to buy up the mint, and the taxes by which it was fed. The consideration money was to be drawn from a fresh creation of stock, and the institution found itself therefore, by a simple vote of its proprietors, endowed with the entire direction of the commerce of the nation, of the collection and management of its revenues, and the territorial possessions of the crown. An annual dividend was promised, which was to amount to 200 livres annually, and the result was that the stock rose in the market 400 per cent above par. The revenue of the company has been computed, even at this day, at no less than 131 millions of livres, which was made up from 48 millions interest from the king ; 39 millions income upon the farms, the mints, and the taxes ; and 44 millions profits from their trade. Possessed, therefore, of such stupendous resources ; dealing with money as if it were the chaff which flew off in the process of its more substantial labors ; ranking as its supporters the governments of the continent of Europe—it is no wonder that the French people, unpractised as they were in such deception, should have looked upon the Mississippi bank as the foundation on which the kingdom was to be built up in the splendor of universal supremacy. In November, 1719, the price of shares had arisen to 10,000 livres each, being more than sixty times the sum at which at first they were actually sold.

M. Chirac, who was at that time chief court physician, is said to have

been called upon when the excitement was in its climax, to visit a female patient of high degree, whose complaints were probably assumed in compliance with the demands of some particular object of etiquette. He seized her hand, and cried out suddenly with an oath which it is not necessary to repeat, "It falls, it falls!" The invalid, naturally ascribing the physician's horror to the extraordinary position of her pulse, rang the bell with all her force to bring up the family confessor; and it was not until ghostly consolation had been offered, that M. Chirac recovered himself sufficiently to state, that wrapped up as he had been in the evolutions of Mississippi stock, his mind was unable to withdraw itself from the contemplation of the invisible barometer that was thus placed before it. So great was the rage displayed for dealing in the new investment, that all Paris was converted into one vast gambling shop. There was no exchange in which the bankers could meet, and the rue Quinquempoix, on which the first banking-house was situated, became the spot in which its business was conducted. In the narrow walls of the first banking-room, were woven plots in which were involved the destiny of France, and the peace of Europe. After the doors had been closed, and the setting of the sun had announced the time in which the speculations of the day must cease, Mr. Law held in his private apartments above, the council which decided not only the measures of the bank, but the policy of the government. It was there that the Duke of Orleans, at that time regent, was accustomed to spend the first half of the night, in contriving with his chief adviser the schemes which were necessary to preserve his tottering power. The comptroller-general, for such was the ministerial office to which Mr. Law had been raised, had assumed as his province, not only the regulating of the trade, but the graduation of the taxes of the kingdom. Where could there be a more momentous task, and one more essential to the prosperity of the French people, than that which was entered into by the ministers of the day, of restoring France to the tone which she had possessed before the usurpations of Louis XIV? If we look back a little further than perhaps we are allowed by the limits of this paper, we will find, that at the period in which the English kings had imposed the most arbitrary taxes at pleasure on their parliaments, the French parliaments had maintained their supremacy with a firmness which reduced their kings to obtain their support by the concession of their most lofty demands. But while the English commoner had learned to refuse the calls of the crown when directed against the liberty of the subject, the French civilian had gradually yielded up privilege after privilege, till he contented himself with registering the decrees of the government of the day. Louis XIV. came to the throne with a possession more absolute than that which had been allotted to any European prince. The crown of England was restrained by the freedom of the subject, that of Spain by the usurpations of the church, but the king of France found himself able to involve a well-nursed treasury, and a broken-spirited people into whatever crusades it suited his ambition to lead them. The king absolved himself at once from the hereditary restraints which the established officers of the treasury placed on the disbursements of the crown. By an edict issued a short time after he came of age, he declared that he was responsible in person for his administration to God alone, and with so great a weight upon his neck, he was determined in no instance to transfer his duties from the shoulders of one whom God has selected for support, to others, who though they might share his labors,

could never lay claim to his office. Unfortunately, however, while he refused the aid of the regular officers of the treasury, he was obliged to call in a variety of subordinates to assist him in the more laborious parts of his duties, who by their avarice alone, would have been able in a few years to have disordered the finances of the state. Of the annual income, but a small sum entered into the king's coffers; for every channel that it passed through, absorbed a large portion of it on its passages; so that some of the most profitable sources of revenue were sometimes lost in the marshes and ravines of court rapacity, before they reached the borders of the treasury in which they were to be emptied. For every fresh campaign in which the king was engaged a new tax would be raised, and for every new tax a fresh number of sinecures were created, who employed themselves in sucking away the greater part of its productions before it reached the troops whom it was to set in motion. It is said that when the herrings are expected to make their annual visits to the north of Scotland, the peasantry from hill and valley flock together, and lay listlessly on the shore, with their nets stretched out, and their eyes uplifted, till the expected visitors are felt in their thread prison-houses, and the draw is made that brings them in myriads to the shore. There were a series of idlers in Paris, who made it their business to slide themselves in every commission that was issued for the collection of the revenue; and as one noble army was struck down on the Rhine, or another melted away in the fevers of the Pyrenees, the court fishermen would hurry to the spot from whence the new impost should be extracted, or the spot where it was to be applied, and hang around it on its passage, till it was unfit for the object to which it was to be applied. Louis XIV. might have looked back, when stretched before his confessor on his dying bed, and recited a series of crimes more serious and more destructive than any which it had been the fortune of his princely predecessors to have achieved. He might have passed over those trivial topics of repentance with which he amused his ghostly counsellor—he might have overlooked the penance which would be necessary for his omission to have persecuted Huguenots more thirstily, or to have conformed more thoroughly to the outward decencies of etiquette—and when he made up his last account, have measured the degree of good which had been achieved by his long administration, and the degree of evil that was to be repented of. There were Spanish wars which had been unsuccessful, he might have said, and which had drawn from the south of France its food for the support of a foreign army. There were wars in Germany, also, which were unsuccessful, and which laid waste the provinces on which they bordered. From the first to the last there had been crusades against the powers of England and of Austria, which had finally exhausted the crusader himself, till he was obliged to retire nerveless from the field. Louis XIV. was in a state of ignorance of the great debt he had created, it is true, because he refused to look into its accounts; but it was an ignorance which displayed the cowardice of his vanity, rather than the indolence of his disposition. He left the crown to his great grandson, mortgaged to an amount which it required a revolution to redeem.

We have gone, we fear, somewhat out of our path, in the consideration of the causes which led to the extraordinary embarrassments of the finances of France, on the opening of the Mississippi Scheme. It is necessary to look more narrowly than a superficial glance, at the profligacy of the

time, to comprehend the entire prostration of the resources of the state. France was actually insolvent ; public creditors were starting up in all quarters ; capitalists in other lands, who had lent money to the French king, were calling on their governments to support their claims ; the necessary movements of the administration were clogged from a want of money to carry them on ; and the same cloud of ruin which hung over the commencement of the reign of Louis XVI., was hovering over the advent of his predecessor. But suddenly, the sky brightened. Money became again plenty—the taxes flowed without difficulty—the machinery of state was placed in rapid motion—trade acquired an unknown facility—adventures were fitted out to the remotest points of the globe—and the nation seemed recovering, with a quickness which threw all precedent into confusion, from the misery into which she had been cast by the childish ambition of the great monarch whom she just had buried. A banking institution had been established, which had assumed the whole province of commercial regulation in its hands—which farmed the taxes—which governed the colonies—and which finally reduced the value of money, and raised that of wages, throughout the land, to an extent which realized the wildest fables of the Troubadours.

If we look more closely into the management of the Mississippi Scheme at the time of its highest prosperity, we will see at once the character of the extraordinary advances which had been made. The bank had issued notes in bales ; but they were notes which represented isles in the Indian sea, perhaps, or towns on the Mississippi, but certainly not the current coin of the realm. The specie of the bank was vanishing, as if melted away by some mysterious influence that diminished it without its guardians being able to discover to what quarter it was carried. Some of the largest proprietors of the company, who had prudence enough to preserve their equilibrium in the midst of the extraordinary success which waited on their speculations, had made a practice of converting their gains into gold and silver, and remitting them abroad for security. In the splendid era also which was about to dawn upon the country, men of wealth disdained the homely utensils with which they had once been contented, and converted the coins which came into their hands into the most gorgeous equipages. We have heard of the hero of a German legend, who was cast, as the consummation of all ambition, on the crest of a mountain which was composed of the greatest luxuries which the palate could suggest. He passed through a lengthened holiday of enjoyment, but in his self-gratification had not calculated on the probable duration of the feast, and one morning he was startled by an unusual motion, and found that he had eaten through the mountain, and was sliding rapidly down the dusty plain that flanked it. The proprietors of the Mississippi bank had miscalculated on the extent of their magical possessions. They had seen them raised up with a rapidity which had surpassed whatever their imagination could have suggested, but as soon as they assured themselves of the reality of the wealth that was spread before them, they entered upon it as if it could have no end. Strangers from all quarters rushed to Paris to divide the quarry ; for, from the peak of the London Exchange, or the peak of St. Mark's, at Venice, it had become visible to the eyes of distant speculators, who flocked like birds of prey, to be present at its spoil. There were no less than three hundred and five thousand foreigners in the capital in November, 1719, who are said to have been drawn there by the prey in view. The films

of etiquette which had been for ages preserved inviolable by the social distinctions of the Parisian hive, and which till then had been able to distinguish its cells, and prevent their contents from mingling, were broken through in their most tender places, by the extraordinary confusion that was thus produced. The doors of the peerage were opened to let in the rich tradesman who had speculated in Mississippi stock. The regent talked of creating a new order of nobility, who should derive their titles from the Indian principalities which they laid claim to. There is an anecdote told by a French historian of noble birth, which we repeat, in utter scorn, we confess, of the little economy of etiquette whose validity it was meant to enforce; but which serves to illustrate very well the social revolutions which were thus put in motion. A Toulouse tradesman, who had hit upon a lucky moment in the market, determined to provide himself with a complete service of plate, and consequently went to a goldsmith, and purchased, at a venture of 400,000 livres, the whole amount that was exposed in his shop. His wife, to whom the new purchases were immediately sent in order to prepare them for a supper which he was meditating, was not versed in the distinctions of plate in general, and especially of the remarkable specimens which thus chanced to be collected together; so that when she proceeded, in arranging the table, to apply each article to its proper use, she was at great loss to discover the purposes to which some of them could be employed. Unfortunately, the lot comprehended a complete church service, which had just been cast as a pious offering for a cathedral then in progress, and the natural consequence was, that the sugar was piled up in a censer, while the soup was held in one of the basins which were originally intended for the reception of holy water.

But it cannot be supposed that the founder of the system, who had nursed it under its early difficulties, and who was thoroughly acquainted with its resources, could have been blinded by the splendor of its sudden success. Mr. Law made use of his influence with the government, which was then entirely in his hands, to procure the promulgation of edicts which strike us at once with surprise, at its own despotism, and of his power. An order of council was issued as early as February, 1720, forbidding every person, and even every community, secular or religious, to keep by them more than 500 livres in specie. The balance between the issues and the specie of the bank being once destroyed, she was compelled to resort to the most ruinous sacrifices in order temporarily to sustain her credit. The notes in the market have been estimated, and it seems with justice, as high as six thousand millions of livres, or about eleven hundred millions of dollars. The funds of the company became wholly insufficient to support so terrible a weight, and even if the gold and silver in the kingdom could have been collected in a mass, it would have been able to meet only about one third of their emissions. But even when the fact of the utter insolvency of the bank must have been clear to all who recollected that gold and silver alone formed the standard of the realm, the infatuation continued to a degree that raised the stock, when it was on the brink of destruction, to a pitch unequalled in its history. By the bolstering edicts which were issued by the council, and which required that payments in specie should be restricted to sums as low as 100 livres in gold, and 10 livres in silver—which declared bank notes to be ever invariable, but which kept the standard of the coin in continual fluctuation—and which ordered that all rents, customs, and taxes, should be paid in notes, and

threw the whole weight of the law in their favor—the people were forced, under the severest penalties, to receive the paper, if they would not buy the stock of the institution. The government had entered into a solemn plan to liquidate the national debt in what manner it could; and as the debt had been assumed by the bank, the only difficulty was to shift the ownership of the bank from the crown to the people. It was to this object that the compulsory edicts of 1720 were directed. The regent stood whip in hand at the Bastille, and significantly pointing to its dungeons, forced into the hands of the crowds who were passed in review before him, the paper which was to transfer like magic the debt which was resting on his royal ward, to the people over whom he was to govern. The trap was successful; and between the 27th of February, and the 1st of April, 1720, 300 millions of livres were paid in specie into the bank, in exchange for its notes. On the 1st of May succeeding, the emission of notes was stopped, and in a little while after, a conclusion was put to the reimbursement of the national creditors through their means; and the government securities which had been previously granted out, having thus been supplanted by the new currency, were withdrawn and cancelled. The policy was now complete. The bank had been bolstered up till royal assistance could no longer support it; and now, when its office was accomplished, the prop was to be suddenly withdrawn, and a ruin occasioned which mocked at the former sufferings of that unhappy country.

The notes in the country, according to the estimate most favorable to the bank, were at least double in value of the specie, and as the crisis was already passed, and a run was commencing at its counter, a council was called for the purpose of deciding whether further aid should be extended. Louis XV. was still in his minority; and the Duke of Orleans, who had held since the accession the regency, had obtained entire possession of the regal power. Stained with every crime which a prince of the blood can commit, he labored still under the suspicion of having been the murderer of three dauphins, and his royal ward was the only obstacle between himself and the throne; the courtiers were prepared each morning to hear and acquiesce in a tale like that which was told by the obsequious attendants of King John, after the death of his brother's child. But the Duke of Orleans had seen that the crown of the murdering king had rested uneasily on his head, and he consoled himself, since he could not take the life of his royal nephew, to at least lay waste his heritage. There were collected around the regent counsellors, who, in principle at least, were rivals of their master. Cardinal du Bois, the most profligate of the servants of the church, in a day when profligacy was a title to her honors, was, like Fouché, the master of the art of police control, though unlike Fouché, he remained faithful to the prince who raised him from obscurity. But Cardinal du Bois placed the regent's aggrandizement as the sole aim of his ministry; and in defiance of the laws of providence, in disdain of the rights of the people, scrupled not to connive at the most unnatural crimes which might gratify his master's passion, or execute the most scandalous oppressions which his master's ingenuity could contrive. The minister had remained the firm supporter of the Mississippi scheme as long as it answered the regent's purposes, but as soon as its object was over, he learned to change his countenance, and in conformity with the orders he had privately received, to prepare in council the ruin which in secret had already been concerted. Mr. Law, who as comptroller-general had a

seat in the council, brought forward at the meeting, which the position of the bank had thus rendered necessary to be called, a series of propositions which he declared would be sufficient to place her on a substantial basis. How should she be enabled to meet the extraordinary run to which she was about to be subjected? It was then that expedients were suggested, which, we venture to say, can have no equals in the history of financial legislation for their crudeness or their pernicious tendency. It was proposed by Mr. Law, that by an edict which it should be made death to transgress, the standard of gold and silver in the kingdom should be doubled, so that estimating the paper to amount to double the specie, they could thus be equalized in value. He supported his proposition by reference to the arbitrary customs of the realm, by which the king was authorized, whenever it became expedient to raise taxes or lower provisions, to suddenly raise or lower as it might be the value of the common standard. Such a step was necessary to the bank, for without some such equalization, she could not maintain herself another month; and when she sank, she would drag with her the new-born prosperity of the state. But the royal counsellors felt little inclined to listen to such advice. They knew that sooner or later the scheme was over, and they were not anxious to prolong it, when it had answered their purposes. Cardinal du Bois proposed, as if in mockery of Mr. Law's suggestion, that the amount of the two currencies should indeed be equalled, but that it should be done, not by raising the specie, but by lowering the notes. The cardinal's advice prevailed; and on the 21st of May, 1720, was published a royal edict, which lowered the stock and notes of the company, by a series of gradual but rapid reductions, to precisely one half their former value.

Before a day was passed, the whole fabric of the Mississippi Scheme, like one of those beautiful snow castles which are raised in the northern countries, to be the hunting lodge of an emperor as he passes, was melted and vanished. The man with a million of its paper in his pocket, might have laid himself on his princely couch, to awake to the life of a pauper. The note holders, stunned in the midst of their intoxication, thronged to the bank, and found it guarded by soldiers. If they pressed in fury to its doors, they were driven back by pikes. In the distance, at the end of the long avenue that was stretched out before them, they could see through the windows the clerks transacting their usual business, with their mammoth books before them, and their chests by their sides. For a moment the note holders thought that there might be some momentary error, which would soon be wiped out—that the military were there to protect against some imaginary evil, and that in a little time the doors would open. The doors in a little time did open, but it was to receive the investigators whom the government had appointed to seal its papers, and stop its payments forever.

When the countrymen from the adjacent villages brought their produce into the city on the next morning, they found that the circulating medium was entirely at a stop. Specie had already vanished from the market, and the notes by which it had been succeeded, which had become in fact the basis on which business was conducted, were acknowledged by the government which protected, and the bank which issued them, to be comparatively worthless. The capitalist, whose rent-roll was crowded with wealth, might meet the merchant whose stores were filled with commodities, without either of them being able to pitch on a medium of exchange,

by which the wants of both could be supplied. The regent issued an edict, which revoked the former enactments against the circulation of gold and silver, but it was easier to drive the precious metals from the market than to force them back again. Specie was given out, as far as was consistent with the resources of the treasury, to the commissaries of the different sections of Paris, who were required to give it in change for small notes that should be presented to them by such as were in greatest necessity of relief. On the 10th of June, an arrangement was entered into by which the bank was enabled to pay its notes of the denomination of ten livres, which in fact constituted a very small proportion of its circulation; on the 11th, it was announced that notes of 100 livres, if singly presented to the counter by single individuals, would be received; and the 12th and 13th of the same month were fixed for the payment of the notes in question. On the days which were mentioned, the poor and the rich seemed to have crowded with one accord about the doors of the bank. Men who held large quantities of the notes in demand, and who by the qualification of the enactment, could only in their individual capacity present a single one to the counter, hired prize-fighters and banditti to act as their proxies on the occasion. The park before the bank resembled the precincts of a camp. The guards in front of the doors managed that very few should be admitted, in order that the press inside might not lead to confusion; but such an arrangement was by no means pleasing to those who were encamped without. Stones were thrown by the more clamorous of the note holders, and in return the soldiers on guard fired into the mob with considerable effect. But the little army, who consisted principally of veterans of the prisons, or peasants who had become infuriated by want, were by no means discouraged by the thinning of their ranks, and holding their notes before them, like standards which were to inspire them in their march, they pressed forward in a dense troop into the place of those who were admitted into the banking-house, or those who were trodden under foot. No less than twenty persons were suffocated in one morning alone, according to the official statement, which excluded of course the victims of the cruelty of the armed police. To those who are accustomed to expend their sympathies on the atrocities that marked the conclusion of the French revolution, the consideration may be of some advantage, that at its commencement, under the most exhausting and complete despotism which ever had been established, there was a tragedy of governmental fraud and governmental blood-thirstiness exhibited, act by act, which may rival the most passionate excesses which were afterward displayed.

But the paper continued in undiminished circulation, notwithstanding the measures which were taken to recall it. That the government had no serious intention of paying specie for their notes is now very clear, though they certainly were able to do so to a large extent. As a means of buying up their obligations far more profitably than could have been done by their actual liquidation, there were constituted in June, 1720, twenty-five millions of perpetual annuities, at the rate of forty years purchase; and four millions of annuities on lives, at twenty-five years purchase, for which notes would be received. Under such, and similar means, it was supposed that the paper would be rapidly drawn in; but anxious as were the people to get rid of their notes, they hesitated to part with them at so unjust a sacrifice. On the 15th of August, the regent took the step which was intended to perfect the system, and an edict was issued which declared that

the notes of 10,000 and 1,000 livres should have no currency, except for the purchase of annuities or bank accounts; and by an edict which followed immediately after, their circulation was prohibited on all conditions after the 1st of November, 1720. The alternative remained, either to part with the notes at a ruinous sacrifice, or to postpone them to a period when the faith of the government was pledged to make them of no value whatever. There were many who preferred the latter; and as the government in that respect at least continued faithful, they found themselves stripped entirely of their ancient property, and reduced to the shadowy estate which was afforded by a few slips of paper.

We shall pass over the succeeding edicts, both in relation to the East India Company, and to the bank itself, which were directed exclusively to the perfecting of the details of the scheme which the government had so adroitly managed. A large portion of the debt which had been contracted by Louis XIV., had been shifted, by the juggling of a foreign adventurer, to the shoulders of the nation, from those of the king himself. A commission, or *visa*, was established to take into consideration the demands of the state creditors, who proceeded to receive and digest the claims against the state, and to present them, after they had been reduced within tangible limits, to the regent for liquidation. The government placed itself in the position of an insolvent trader, who was unable to pay his debts, and assigned his whole interest in his estate to others, who had stipulated to obtain for him a release upon his entire surrender. The *visa* occupied itself not so much in hearing, as in higgling with the state creditors. A merchant who had lent his fortune in a former reign to feed the warlike ambition of the king, when he presented the scrip which had been given to him in evidence of his title, was taken aside, and plied with all considerations of pecuniary advantage or personal safety, to induce him to compound the debt. It was the king's grace that conceded the payment of any part of the demand, and the creditor should remain satisfied with the generous boon. Eight hundred clerks were employed in subjecting the claims to the operation of the new ordeal. In the course of a few months the claims were reduced within limit, and the debt due by the king diminished more than forty millions of livres yearly. In less than a single year the Mississippi Scheme had achieved the stupendous task of clearing one half of the obligations of the crown, by means which impoverished the nation in their execution. More than 500,000 persons are said to have been reduced from wealth to want by the depreciation of the stock of the bank, and the dishonor of its notes. The victim of the Mississippi Scheme might look to the replenished coffers of the government, or the disencumbered estates of the princes of the blood, with the consciousness that it had been through his own destruction that their revenues had been built up. Private fortunes had been melted together by wholesale, to create the estate of a minister or a favorite, like the ordinary coins which are drawn from the usual purposes of circulation, and are brought together in one great mass, to form a splendid, but unnecessary article of plate. The grounds of Chantilly, which had been mortgaged, and even alienated in part, during the misfortunes of the family, were recovered by the Duke of Bourbon, through the means which his successful speculations afforded, and built up in magnificence suitable to the condition of the most princely house of Europe. An English gentleman, by the name of Gage, amassed so immense a fortune, that, in defiance of the

usual decorum of continental etiquette, he offered three millions sterling to the king of Poland for his crown; and the monarch is said to have been so deaf to the voice of self-respect, as to have actually treated for the sale. It would have seemed as if the wealth of the whole nation had been thrown into the governmental foundry, and recast into colossal shapes, which astonished not only from their grandeur, but their solidity. The face of the country was reduced to a wilderness—its fields were dry—its laborers starving—its trade confused—while here and there, on the shore, or in the forest, might be seen a splendid palace, or a grotesque pagoda, which had been built by the collected energies of the state. But who can estimate the misery that was then suffered? The eye of the traveller was caught by the monuments of wealth which stood out in the distance before him, and he forgot to notice the miserable hovel by their side. The chronicles of the court of Louis XV., are too much wrapped up in the momentous weight of the intrigues which they relate, to bestow a thought upon the silent sufferings that were endured by those who were not involved in the masquerade. Madame du Barri says carelessly, that the poor were found starved and frozen in troops, in the dreadful winter that ensued; but she relates it as a matter of speculative curiosity, in the same way that almanac writers in our own day relate the extraordinary movements among wild beasts, who were driven by the extremity of the weather to the road-side to die. The princess Elizabeth wondered that people should starve; she asked whether they were too proud to eat bread. In another reign the cup was full, and the princess Elizabeth was led to the altar, to expiate the crimes of those from whom her honors were descended. She might have looked to the other end of the street in which she was sacrificed, and seen there, led on a similar errand to that in which she was employed, a victim far more frail, but not less obnoxious to the executioners. The daughter of king Louis XV., and the mistress who countenanced him in his last atrocities, might have called to remembrance in that solemn hour, the miseries which the one had endeavored to alleviate, and which the other had aggravated till the moment of their revenge had arrived.

The founder of the Mississippi Scheme found himself brought down in the course of a few short months, from a pitch of honor second to that alone which belonged to the king, to a point so low that there were none in that great realm who would have done him reverence. In the desolate retreat at Venice, in which he hastened to draw around him that obscurity which could form his only shield, he might have looked back to a time, only a year distant, when he stood in the highest pinnacle of the state. The Earl of Ilay, in a letter written at the crisis of the speculation, says that he found Mr. Law's antechamber guarded by Swiss troopers, who were placed there to keep out the crowds of suitors who pressed about its door. Peers of France, and princes of the royal blood, were seen daily waiting at his door, hoping by their hollow compliments, and their humble attentions, to win the notice of the great financier. Mr. Law retained his Scotch associations, if he had thrown off his British allegiance, and made his house the home of his original countrymen, no matter what might be the nature of their relations to their native land. The last Pretender was then hovering around the skirts of Paris, and in the want to which he was reduced, he found that the munificence of the Scotch banker afforded him assistance more warm than that which was given to him by

the promptest of his adherents. The prince is said to have drawn up at one time a paper ministry, in which Mr. Law was elevated to the post of chancellor of the exchequer, and was invested at the same time with so complete a supervision over the home department, as would place the Bank of England under his control as fully in his new office, as the Bank of the Mississippi in his old one. It became the prevailing belief in France, till the fatal edict of 21st of May had suddenly prostrated the company, that the power of its founder was unlimited, and the sycophancy of the speculators towards him increased in proportion with the rage for speculation. Schemes were laid by the reigning beauties of the day for the purpose of drawing him within their power, which, if they were not successful, at least deserved to be so from the ingenuity which was displayed in their conception. We have heard of instances in which the cavaliers of a past generation performed the most daring and laborious feats, in order to bring them under the notice of the lady to whom they had devoted themselves by a vow of consecration; but there are examples which are displayed by Mr. Law's biographer, of chivalry under a contrary manifestation, which can rarely be surpassed in the history of the Roc minstrels. The wife of a debtor of the comptroller-general, having sought in vain all other methods of rescuing him from his embarrassments, and despairing in any other way to attract the notice of the sovereign in whose hand her fate depended, caused herself to be overthrown in his court-yard, at a time when his carriage was passing by, and when, from the prominence of her disaster, she might lay claim to his favorable attention. The device was successful, and became popular; and the consequence was, that Mr. Law for some weeks was unable to move out, without being impeded by the flounderings of a wrecked carriage, or the awkwardness of a dismantled horse.*

There was but one step remaining to place the comptroller-general at the head of both church and state, and by a summary process that was taken. In December, 1719, he appeared with his son and daughter before the altar of the church of the Récollets, at Melun, and there did penance for the heresy in whose shadows he so long had tarried. As a sign of his sincerity, he officiated as patron in his parish church of St. Roch; and having endowed it with a magnificent donation, was constituted its honorary warden, in place of a duke of the royal family, who gave way. A convoy of fish was ordered through his bounty to be brought to Paris, and distributed to the poor during lent; though, unfortunately for the appropriateness of the charity, the vessels were detained by contrary winds, and did not arrive till after Easter. Lord Stair, who at that time was British minister, was superseded by his court, because he had neglected at first to ingratiate himself with the ruling power; and the English ministry hastened to redeem the error, by supplanting him by a representative who could be more pliant in his demeanor. The whole of Europe lay at his feet, while he, like the son of the Jewish patriarch, was waited upon by those in whose lap he had been nursed, and under whose protection he had been fostered, as the statesman who controlled the destiny of his adopted country.

As on the day of his highest exaltation, when every circumstance had combined to raise him to a pitch of power unexampled in a subject, Mr.

* Wood's Life of Law, p. 60.

Law proceeded, after the immediate business of his department was closed, to hold the levee which the lateness of his employment required him to delay till almost midnight, he might have seen, as the last visiter was departed, or the last suppliant was dismissed, the first rays of a morning which was to usher in his complete degradation. There was scarcely a breathing time between his highest elevation, and his final ruin. He seemed to have reached the pinnacle of a high mountain, and then, slipping from his foothold, to have fallen with a violence which carried him below the level from which his exertions had first been directed. A guard was necessary on the day of the bank's stoppage, to preserve his person from violence, and even under its escort he was insulted by placards brandished before his face, in which he was styled "*papillot*," and " *fils aîné de Satan*." He had expatriated himself from his native land; he now was banished from that which had been the land of his prosperity. We can follow him in his wayward course from court to court, from capital to capital, until at last, with a fortune which had experienced every vicissitude, till its substance was worn away by its changes, and with a name which was soiled with every blemish which in those dissolute times could be won, he died in Venice, on the 21st of March, 1729, and in the fifty-eighth year of his age. The traveller who sees the name of John Law, of Lauriston, on a stone in the church of St. Marks, forgets that under him lay the remains of the speculator who prepared for France the bankruptcy under Louis XV., and the revolution under his successor.

It is our intention, at a future period, to examine the condition of the commerce and the finances of France, in the various relations into which they were thrown, by the changes of the French revolution. We have made use at the present of the Mississippi Scheme, as an illustration of the spirit of financial ignorance, and of governmental despotism, which existed at the commencement of the reign of Louis XV. We have seen a scheme which bore on its face little beyond plausibility, snatched up by the government as a medium by which its debt could be paid, and palmed off on the people by all the measures which fraud or violence could suggest. When persuasions were of no more use, constraint was used; and the capitalist who was unwilling to listen to the seductions of a messenger of the court, was palsied into obedience by the bayonet of a Swiss grenadier. One half of the national debt was thus avoided; but it was avoided by throwing it from the king to the people, without a consequent diminution of the taxes which had been previously drawn to support it. A period of distress was produced which is unequalled in history, and which laid the seeds of that deep and wide-spread rebellion, which overthrew in the next reign the dynasty under whose auspices it had been fomented. It was from the ruin of the Mississippi Scheme, that we can trace the rise of those commercial institutions, which, after a century of uproar and oppression, have assumed a power which bids fair to lift France to a pitch of prosperity higher than has been imagined by the most sanguine of her chiefs.

ART. II.—THE THEORY OF BANKING.

QUESTIONS of currency and banking have, during the few past years, undergone much discussion in this country ; and are, at the present time, little less interesting to the people of England than to ourselves.

Our attention has of late been drawn to sundry publications that have appeared in England, which express various views of the system of banking at present existing in that country ; and the remarks we propose to make have been suggested by the perusal of them.

1. Report of the Directors to a Special Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce and Manufactures at Manchester, on the Effects of the Administration of the Bank of England upon the Commercial and Manufacturing Interests of the Country : December 12, 1839.

2. Analysis of the Report of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, with an Exposure of its Fallacies : no date.

3. A Letter to J. B. Smith, Esq., President of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce ; by Samuel Jones Lloyd : January 9, 1840.

4. Remarks on the Management of the Circulation, and on the Condition and Conduct of the Bank of England, and of the Country Issuers, during the year 1839 ; by Samuel Jones Lloyd : 1840.

5. Report of the Select Committee on Banks of Issue, with Minutes of Evidence, &c. ; ordered by the house of commons to be printed : August 7, 1840.

In these different publications, various views are presented of the interesting subject to which they refer. The report of the directors of the chamber of commerce attributes the fluctuation of prices that is continually occurring, and particularly the heavy fall of prices in 1837, together with much physical and moral evil, to the mismanagement of the circulation by the Bank of England. A different view is taken by the anonymous writer, whose pamphlet is mentioned above as No. 2. Mr. Lloyd, an intelligent banker, author of Nos. 3 and 4, is of opinion that the system is wrong, but thinks the bank has done its duty, as far as it was able to do under the circumstances in which it was placed.

The discussion to which these publications gave rise appears to have caused the appointment of the committee of the house of commons, on the 19th March, 1840, to inquire into the effects produced on the circulation of the country by the various banking establishments issuing notes payable on demand. The committee held many sittings, called before them for examination gentlemen engaged in various departments of business, of great experience and extensive observation, and obtained much statistical information, but came to no result. They reported the evidence they obtained to the house, without expressing any opinion of their own.

And, it must be acknowledged by every one who reads the "minutes of evidence," that for a large committee to agree upon a report founded on the testimony of individuals who, in their views of the same subject, differ so entirely from each other, would be a work of no small difficulty. In fact, the witnesses can be said to agree in no one particular, except that the present system is, in their opinion, defective, and requires amendment.

In respect, however, to the particular alterations in the mode of managing the circulation necessary to remedy existing evils, each witness entertained opinions peculiar to himself.

This state of the case in England does not differ materially from the state in which the same questions now stand in this country. Questions relating to the currency, and our banking system, have been long under discussion, and without leading to any satisfactory result. All agree in one thing, however, which is, that the currency of the country, and, as connected with it, the banking system, are in a most unsatisfactory state, and require thorough reformation.

The inquiry, therefore, that naturally suggests itself is this: what is the true principle on which the banking system of the nation should be founded? Who of all the multitude of reasoners, that have treated the subject, have given us correct views of it? Or, does the true principle still lie hidden? To ask these questions is easy. To answer them is difficult. To answer them satisfactorily to everybody is, perhaps, impossible. Yet, to look for the answer may not be altogether in vain.

It is with reference to that branch of modern banking which consists in the issuing of circulating medium, that all discussion is now carried on. The great point to be settled is, to discover some system on which the issues of paper money may be based, which shall combine the requisite qualities of security and convenience, and at the same time guard against the fluctuations that inevitably attend excessive issues.

We consider it altogether too late in the day to discuss the question of tolerating banks at all. That question has been conclusively settled by the opinion of every enlightened commercial nation. Modern commerce could not be carried on without them. The experience of centuries has proved them to be indispensable to the prosperity of an active business people.

Even allowing the existence of banks of discount and deposit, we do not admit it to be possible to devise a plan for issuing *paper* money so free from objection as can be devised and executed through the agency of these institutions. However numerous the objections to the existing system, all plans for its improvement, under whatever name proposed, when traced out in detail, end finally in a bank of some sort. The great object, therefore, seems to be to devise a system of issues which shall combine the economy and convenience of paper with the security of specie.

The system of banking at present existing in this country, is not founded on any well-defined principle. The system works in accordance with laws emanating from twenty-six different legislatures; and embodying, not only the wisdom, but the theoretical notions and whims of some six thousand legislators. In all the states, excepting New York, banks are established under charters specially granted by the legislature, and the corporations are subject to such restrictions as may be by those bodies imposed upon them. They are subject to no limit in the issue of notes, unless some limit happens arbitrarily to be fixed by the power that creates them. It is directly for the interest of these institutions to push their issues upon the public to the utmost amount possible, and therefore an irresistible tendency in the circulating medium to become redundant; and when it has become so, and their notes begin to return upon them for specie for export, that being the only portion of the currency that can be used for discharging an unfavorable balance of trade, the banks in most of the states meet the demand by a refusal to pay.

In England the system is more sound, yet in some respects exceedingly defective. The currency is managed and supported by the Bank of England. Notes are issued by the bank, redeemable in coin, and by all coun-

try bankers distant sixty-five miles or more from London, who choose to issue them, and redeem them either in gold or Bank of England notes. Thus the whole burden of preserving the convertibility of the currency falls upon the Bank of England; and when the paper issues become excessive, the drain commences upon the bank. To counteract it, the bank resorts to contraction; but, notwithstanding its utmost efforts at contraction, it is often so embarrassed by the continued expansion of the country issuers, that it finds it exceedingly difficult to diminish the circulation, and has within a few months been on the very verge of suspension.

The defects of these systems are apparent to all. In regard to the remedy, no two persons can be found who entertain the same opinions.

It has been, of late years, supposed that a certain proportion between the issues and specie should be ascertained and fixed; and, this proportion preserved, the convertibility of the paper circulation would be secured. When the charter of the Bank of England was renewed in 1832, this principle was adopted, and the proportion fixed was one third the amount of the circulation and deposits, to be held in bullion. The recent parliamentary inquiry has, however, shown that this principle has been rather the exception than the rule, in the management of the bank, since the time of its adoption. Its directors have, in its management, under the influence of circumstances beyond their control, been rather governed by considerations of expediency; and, having no control over the country issuers, who are also governed by notions of expediency, the community are subjected to all the evils attendant upon excessive fluctuations.

To remedy these evils, it has been proposed, both in this country and England, to establish a bank of issues, which should possess the sole power of issuing notes. The leading feature of the plan appears to be to issue a certain amount of notes, to be determined by law, upon securities, and the rest only in exchange for bullion. Mr. Samuel Jones Lloyd, the proposer and principal advocate of this plan in England, states it as his opinion that the issues of notes should correspond with the influx and efflux of bullion from the country.

We must declare that we see in this plan nothing more than an exchange of one evil for another. In the first place, the amount of the currency issued on securities must be left to the *discretion* of somebody. In this country the men who administer the government are constantly changing. Legislators usually remain but a short time in office. Each new one that comes in is desirous of trying his own experiments, and testing his own theories, regardless of what has been done by those before him, and of what may be done by those who may come after him. This constant liability to fluctuation in the management of the issues, would subject the currency at times to greater danger. Besides, when bullion comes into a country, the tendency of paper money is to diminish; but a forced issue of notes, at the time of an influx of bullion, would only tend prematurely to stimulate prices, bring on an immediate efflux of bullion, and render the accompanying contraction calamitous in a corresponding degree.

It is also proposed in this country, to set up a great bank to regulate all the little ones. But who is to regulate the regulator? Who is to decide when it is proper for the currency to be expanded, and when it is desirable it should be contracted by the operations of the regulating machine, and have the vibrations occur at precisely the right moment, and to the right amount? The grand difficulty in the way of this mode of managing

the banking system, is that all these movements must be left to the *discretion* of somebody. And experience has demonstrated that a board of directors of a bank, possessing a discretionary power over the currency, are subject to influences, that, however honest their intentions, they find it extremely difficult if not impossible to resist.

We object decidedly to any such system. We object to any system which leaves the currency to be fluctuating at the discretion of any body whatever. We object to any *regulation* on the part of the government beyond the exercise of its power of coinage, and the enactment of such simple general laws as will secure the fulfilment of contracts made by issuers of paper money.

We can approve no system that is not *self-acting*. The currency must regulate itself. If the precious metals flow into the country, our banking institutions must be so constructed as to admit of such an expansion as the demands of business require. If the exchanges turn, they should at once accomplish the needed contraction, and part with the coin necessary to restore the currency to its proper equilibrium with the currencies of other nations.*

If a system of banking can be devised which shall accommodate itself to these vibrations of the currency which must unavoidably occur in commercial nations, with ease, regularity, and certainty, we believe it would be a perfect system.

We believe this can be done without interfering with the banks now in existence; that is to say, the solvent banks in existence may be incorpo-

* The precious metals being universally adopted as the measure of value, and there being no restriction to their circulation, every commercial nation will, in the course of trade, obtain its proper share.

Withdrawing from one nation any part of that proportion, adds to the value of the remainder, and depresses the price of all other commodities.

Adding that amount so withdrawn to the currency of another nation, diminishes the value of the precious metals in that nation, and raises the price of all other commodities.

The nation that has lost the metals, exports its other cheap commodities to the nation that has gained them, where the other commodities have become dearer. They do not receive commodities in exchange, because it is not for the interest of anybody to buy in a dear market, and sell in a cheap one.

The process in due time creates what is called a balance of trade, and draws the metals back again to settle that balance.

This movement in the metals causes a reaction in prices.

The object of government should be to let the currency work *freely*, and it will thus keep itself on a par with that of other nations.

Paper is substituted for specie for the purpose of economy—but to answer as a substitute, must perfectly represent it, and be convertible into it at will.

The instant it is issued in excess, it will, if left to work with freedom and without *regulation*, be converted into specie and exported, and must be reduced in amount until the equilibrium of the metals is restored.

All *regulation* of the currency in opposition to the course of trade, tends only to derangement, as for example, an importation of specie is followed by a fall in the price of other articles exported. Perfect freedom is therefore indispensable, that prices and currency may preserve themselves in equilibrium among commercial nations.

rated into such a system with ease. By solvent banks, we mean those that can pay their liabilities in specie.

Banks that can pay any thing, can pay specie. If a bank has not specie, it should have some kind of securities that will sell for it. If it has none of these, its capital has too little vitality to be useful for banking purposes, and the sooner it goes into liquidation the better. Under a sound self-acting system, these institutions could not stand for a single day.

In order to explain the true principle on which a banking system should be founded, in a country where the currency is a mixed one, we must first point out the great defect in the present system.

The moment a bank in this country* issues its notes, such of them as are not needed for payment of demands at the bank itself, fall a little in value. The further they go from the bank, the greater their depreciation. The tendency of bank notes is always towards some central point of trade; and as most of these notes flow into this reservoir, they are at a discount when they arrive there; great enough to pay the broker who buys them for the expense of sending them back for redemption, and a profit on the capital he employs in the business.

In the commercial cities, the case with the banks is different; their notes, issued at the centre of trade, are at par. If they travel away from home to any distance, they are more valuable than the currency into which they introduce themselves, and are caught up at once and returned home.

If the currency becomes redundant, the demand for specie for export is first felt by the banks in the commercial cities. The notes of these banks instantly return upon them for redemption. That portion of the currency which exists in the form of deposits, and which is identical with that part of the currency in circulation in every thing but form, is drawn out, and the banks are forced to a contraction.

But with the country notes, the case is different—they fill all the channels of circulation—no bank but that which issues them will receive them, and they thus become the cheaper currency, and it is for the interest of everybody to keep them from the channel through which only they can return home, i. e. the broker.

Now if the contraction caused by the first demand for coin could be felt immediately by all the banks in the country, the currency would be restored to its equilibrium immediately.

But while the contraction goes on where the demand for specie is first felt, there may be a continual expansion elsewhere. There often is such an expansion which keeps the currency redundant, and prolongs the drain of specie until the convertibility of the whole currency is seriously endangered, if not entirely destroyed; the mercantile interests suffering in the mean time the entire action of the contraction necessarily going on at the great commercial points.

The general circulating medium consists entirely of the notes of banks of the second grade. The circulation of the really rich and sound banks does not penetrate into the mass of paper afloat throughout the interior. This circulation is made up of notes of distant banks—the more remote the situation of the bank, the greater its circulation—the greater the dis-

* These remarks do not apply to the banks in New England, which we shall have occasion to speak of hereafter.

count on its notes, (provided it does not go beyond that point at which people in general will submit to it, rather than refuse to receive it,) the greater the certainty of its continuing in circulation.

Thus it is for the interest of every bank to push out its notes as fast as possible. The surest way to keep them out, is to make them a *little* less valuable than the notes of other institutions.

The currency under this existing system of banking, is, if our view of it is correct, constantly tending towards depreciation, and requiring at regular intervals a convulsion of some sort to restore it to a sound state.

The banking system is a machine constantly getting out of repair—now breaking a wheel here, and a cog there—men constantly taxing their wits to repair its defects, which are no sooner repaired in one place than they show themselves in another. The people, through their legislatures, have been at work for two generations, and the machine goes none the better, but rather worse.

Let us state then what we conceive to be the true principle on which the banking system of the country should be founded ; it is the principle of *making it for the interest of everybody to send bank notes home for redemption.*

This interest is not to be created by discrediting the paper—by causing the apprehension of loss to operate as an inducement to the holders of the issues of banks to force them back to the issuers, in opposition to their considerations of convenience or necessity. Such a course would subject the community to a loss of all advantages derivable from the use of paper as a circulating medium.

Nor should it be done by arbitrary enactments to restrain circulation from perfect freedom in its motions—nor to compel its return to the source of issue by any unnatural way—or in a way to cause expense to its issuers, or holders. This expense must in some form fall upon the public in the end, and to its extent diminishes the amount of convenience and economy of the circulating medium.

It is rather to be created in other ways which we will point out.

In the first place, the idea almost universally prevalent, that the point of issue is to be the point of redemption, must be given up. Banks are often instituted in remote places, inconvenient of access ; and as their issues cannot be returned, except at heavy expense to the holders of their paper, their notes under the existing system, as we have described it, are less valuable, and thus displace the notes of banks nearer at hand ; thus weakening the circulation, and rendering corrective measures more difficult in case of a redundancy.

All banks should therefore be required to redeem their issues at some point, which serves as a centre for the trade of the section of country in which it is located, or as the centre of the trade of the whole country. In this way, the course of trade, and the interest of the public, will carry its issues to be redeemed, as naturally as a log of wood would float down the Hudson from Albany to New York. Thus the banks in the state of New York should be required to redeem their issues in New York ; the state of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia ; and other sections of the country, at those points towards which, in the course of trade, they most naturally tend.

In the second place, there must be freedom in the business of banking.

In advancing this proposition, we are well aware that we run counter

to a deep-rooted prejudice in favor of a system of regulation ; but it is the system of *regulating* that we strenuously oppose. We want a system to act of itself, and upon general, sound, fixed principles, to regulate itself. This it cannot do without entire freedom.

The system of chartering banks is radically defective. One state may charter too few—and the whole emolument derived from the business of a bank of circulation, is engrossed by a few rich aristocrats, who get hold of the stock, and assume the entire control of it ; and as they make currency plenty or scarce, so they raise and depress prices to answer their own ends.

Another state may charter too many, or may burden the corporations they create with troublesome restrictions, or undue taxation. Hence these charters cease to be an object of desire to those who have real capital to invest, and fall into the hands of speculators, who keep up a show of capital where there is none in reality ; and by means of the machinery of the bank, furnish themselves with funds, to a small extent, from its limited means.

The public, however, make no distinction between such weak banks and the really sound ones. All put forth their issues under legislative sanction, and the public relying upon what is thus accredited, esteem all alike sound—in fact, surrender all judgment of their own respecting it, and place full reliance in the sanction the public authorities have given to its issue.

In this way, by means of legislative charters, bills emitted by banks without capital enjoy almost equal credit with those of solid resources, until something turns up to destroy the public confidence. A dozen men who are not worthy of credit for a single dollar, and who individually could not obtain credit for that amount, by some means become possessed of a charter, and thus collectively obtain unlimited credit. By means of a charter, a number of nothings are manufactured into something. The circulation they obtain is palmed off upon the unwary and ignorant : after which comes the catastrophe, involving loss to the public, and shaking confidence in all banking institutions.

The state of New York has tried a system of free banking—how it will work, remains to be proved. The system we think is faulty in principle ; but it is certain that it requires more character and more credit to establish a free bank, than it ever required to set up a chartered bank. Men of straw, and mushroom speculators, do not establish them, because the public will not take their bills. Some such were started when the system was first established, and the bills passed at distant points, because the public was wedded to the idea that all bank issues were made by legislative authority : as soon as it was discovered to be otherwise, they dropped out of circulation. A free bank now, without real capital, and honest managers, cannot get bills enough into circulation to pay for their engraving.

There can be no reason given why the two branches of banking business, lending money and receiving it in deposit, should not be left open to a competition as free as is allowed to any trade or business whatever. The issue of bills for circulation, is a branch of the business respecting which the public have a right to say something ; and while we would not by any means wish it to say too little, we would not have it say too much. The public use the bank notes as the representative of specie, and have a right to say they shall be fully equal to specie in every respect. And as

it is not convenient for a man in Providence to go to Hartford, Albany, Portland, or Montpelier, to get his specie, and as others will not go without compensation, therefore these issues shall all be redeemed in Boston or New York. Money in either of those places, is money everywhere; and whatever will command money in those places, will command it in any part of the country that trades with them. The public have a right to require security for their redemption, beyond the character of the issuers for wealth and character, to be deposited at the place of redemption—not in mortgages, requiring months or years for their conversion—nor in stocks, half or the whole of which may evaporate in the day of trial, but in real cash for a certain proportion to the circulation, and substantial securities, of an active character, for the remainder.

The issues being redeemed at a fixed point, to which they naturally tend, it becomes at once the interest of every bank to collect and send there the bills of all other banks. They are wanted to redeem their own bills. Each bank, having its own circle to supply, is jealous of any intrusion; and no sooner does a foreign note cross the line, than it is instantly seized upon, and sent on its way homeward, by way of the point of redemption.

The business of banking being free, the number of banks would somewhat increase in some sections of the country, and probably diminish in others. Banks to issue notes would, as they came into existence, be additional watchers of the whole currency. Each bank would gain for itself, if possible, a circle to be supplied by its issues. In so doing, it would, to that extent, narrow the circles of all others; while the public would watch over all. The notes could only circulate in the circle where they were well known. The moment they get out of it they fall into the track which carries them immediately to the place of redemption.

The laws regulating the rate of interest must be repealed. It is not enough to say they are useless. They are a positive injury to the whole community. They restrict the natural flow of the currency, and promote unsteadiness in trade. The sooner we do away with them the better.

Congress must enact a general bankrupt law, to apply not only to individuals but corporations—at least, to all banking institutions. The currency must be kept convertible, *at every hazard*. This principle must be adhered to, and never deviated from, upon any consideration of expediency whatever. Therefore, every institution issuing currency, to say the least, should, on finding itself unable to keep in step, stand out of the ring, and settle up its affairs.

Let the banking system be based upon these principles, and the currency never could become redundant. The money market might become tight, and money scarce. The rate of interest would test that. But the moment the foreign exchanges, which are the test of the currency, began to rise, and a demand for specie be made on the central point, it would be felt by every bank in the country, redeeming there, as certainly as a touch of the heart is felt through every artery of the system. And in the requisite curtailment to reduce the currency to its level, every bank would bear its exact proportion. Not, indeed, its exact proportion in the ratio the circulation of each bank bears to the whole currency, but in proportion as the business of the bank and the section of the country dependent on it, had been unduly extended. An agricultural district would not be compelled to curtail much; some districts, perhaps, not at all; while districts dependent upon commerce would be drawn upon more heavily.

Those districts of the country which contain the greatest amount of currency in the shape of deposits would be subjected to the heaviest draft. A contraction of the currency usually falls upon this part of it. The amount of bank notes does not differ at different times so materially as the amount of deposits. They are the same as circulation in all respects, except form. The two are convertible into each other, at the pleasure of the holder; and the possessor of one can do nothing which cannot be done by the possessor of the other.

We are aware of much difference of opinion upon this subject among well-informed men; but, after careful examination and much reflection, we can come to no other conclusion than what we have here briefly expressed, which is, that they are the same; and that he would be an improvident legislator indeed, who should attempt to manage a currency upon any other theory.

The Suffolk Bank system, which prevails in New England, is founded essentially upon the principles we have laid down. Whether it was set on foot after a diligent examination of these principles, we know not; nor do we know who was its originator: but certain it is that some Boston man deserves the credit of bringing into existence the most perfect system of banking ever yet devised. Experience for seventeen years has proved it to be as nearly perfect as any system can probably ever be. It is self-acting. It needs no regulator, for it regulates itself. Amid all the convulsions that have occurred within a few years, New England has weathered the storm better than any other section of the country. Banks in New England seldom fail; and, probably, would never fail, if it were not for the chartering system—if they were allowed to spring into being under some general law, as the wants of the public required, and the public left to form their own opinion of the character of their proprietors for honesty and ability. The banks that have failed in New England since this system went into operation have, in almost all instances, been established under authority of charters granted to irresponsible persons; or, if granted to men of character, have been bought up and controlled by those who have used them as mere engines for speculating on the community.

We gather from the returns of the banks in the New England states, that have been published from time to time and have been within our reach, facts that demonstrate our theory to be the correct one; and, probably, the only theory in the world fortified satisfactorily by an experience of a series of years.

Were our country like England, with a central and independent government, and our whole trade turning upon a common centre, like London, the theory we have advanced could easily be put in practice. The English government might now save all further trouble, by requiring all the banks in the kingdom to redeem at the Bank of England. Instead, then, of inquiring how to construct a *regulator* for the banks, either by a government bank of issue, or otherwise, they would have a perfect self-regulating system. Were it not that they have approximated towards this system, by allowing the country banks to redeem in Bank of England notes, the English currency would long ago have been as "deranged" as our own.

In our own country, the case is materially different. Our government is of a character so mixed, and power is so divided between national and state sovereignties, each claiming to possess powers in relation to the creation of banks, which, if exercised, tend to nullify the other, and the states

differing from each other in their views so far, that any scheme requiring the co-operation and assent of all, might at once be set down as one which could not possibly be carried into effect.

The currency of the country is a currency of bank paper; and, in its present state, admitted by everybody to be sadly imperfect, in many parts of the country irredeemable, and therefore such as the government cannot possibly countenance by receiving it.

The government cannot, however, confine itself to metallic money only. The experiment may be said to have been fairly tried; and however easy to be carried into effect in theory, in practice it has been found impossible to receive and collect the public money and transact the public business without the intervention of bank paper. A currency exclusively metallic is found too expensive, and the necessity for economizing in the use of it is absolute.

If the government must use paper, whose paper shall it use? That of state banks? They have repeatedly proved dangerous depositories, and ought never to be used again. Even if founded upon the credit of the states, they have proved no better than banks under ordinary charters. The funds of the government should not be trusted in individual hands. There is but one alternative. The government will probably find it necessary to have a bank for itself.

Our remarks have reached an almost unreasonable length, and yet, to go into the subject of a national bank would require more space than we have already occupied. We shall therefore content ourselves with giving a general outline of such an institution as would comport with the principles we have endeavored to illustrate:

It would of course be so far owned and controlled by government, as that the public, through the government, should have such a knowledge of its concerns as could be given by the most regular and perfect publicity. Yet it should be so far independent of the government that it could be managed free from its *control*, and with all the skill and judgment that could be introduced by a body of private stockholders.

It should be placed at the commercial centre of the country—New York.

Its capital should be small, so as easily to regulate itself; and yet large enough to inspire confidence in its stability—but not large enough to undertake the regulation of other banks.

Its capital should be invested in solid securities for the most part, that its means might not in a floating shape be perverted to advance the interests of a few individuals; yet of a character which in times of pressure would draw the money of capitalists to its aid in case of unforeseen emergency.

Its funds derived from circulation and deposits, to be invested solely in domestic bills of exchange and specie.

In its business of receiving and disbursing the government funds, and selling and collecting its exchanges, it could *receive the notes of all solvent banks, and return them home for redemption.*

By means of branches judiciously distributed at different points of the country, it would in this way bring the currency into the most perfect working. No banks would long continue to pay specie at home, when they could redeem in the notes of other banks at some common point, and motives of self-interest would, in a very little time, lead every bank in the

country to redeem at the national bank, or one of its branches: the branches turning upon their centre; and by this compound movement the whole currency be brought into a most perfect system of self-regulation.

The large deposits made to effect these redemptions would be profitable to the bank; the regularity of redemption favorable to the state banks, and a strong motive furnished every issuing body to continue its redemption, because of the instant discredit sure to follow a failure.

If the currency became redundant it would be instantly perceived, and as quickly remedied. And the power to do so existing, it could not fail to be exercised, for though money became scarce and the rate of interest high, yet, as we have before said, *the currency should be preserved, whatever might be the consequences.*

Without entering into the subject at greater length or more minutely, we submit our observations to the reader. We do not pretend to have presented any thing very new, but have merely endeavored to set forth what we think a proper application of well-known principles. If in our views we are right, the good sense of the reader will easily discover it, and will as easily point out our errors if we are wrong.

We are well aware that when new views upon any subject are brought before the public, or when old and established principles are illustrated, so as to give them an application different from that which accords with the current of public sentiment, the degree of attention paid to the views of the writer corresponds almost exactly with the reputation he may have acquired in the public estimation. For our part, as we wish in the present case that our views may be tried upon their merits, and stand or fall as they may prove to be well or ill founded, without reference on the part of the public to the character or standing of the promulgator, we write anonymously.

ART. III.—THE PROGRESS OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

In entering upon so wide and fruitful a subject as the commerce of the United States, we are naturally led to go back to its original condition, and to trace its progress, step by step, to its present state. Within a period of less than two centuries, it has grown to an importance that is now second to that of Great Britain alone; and its rapid advance exhibits, more prominently than any other national interest, the extraordinary enterprise of the American people, developed in great measure, and fostered by the spirit of our government.

During the early period of our colonial existence, when the extensive territory which now constitutes the domain of the United States was subject to the jurisdiction of foreign powers, it was controlled by that arbitrary colonial policy which formerly characterized the nations of Europe, and more particularly the British empire. Although the country possessed a fertile soil, prolific in all the resources of agricultural wealth, with navigable rivers running from the heart of the country to the seaboard—thus furnishing channels of navigation from the greater portion of the interior to the frontier—and its shores were then, as now, washed throughout nearly their entire borders by the ocean, that great highway of nations;

the few feeble settlements which had been made by the English, the French, and the Dutch, from Louisburg to Florida, and from Boston to the banks of the Mississippi, were crippled by burdensome legislation, and made tributary to the parent governments abroad. This was especially true of the colonial establishments which were planted upon what now comprises the territory of the eastern states, first colonized by England, and those of the French, westward from the shores of the great lakes. These establishments were themselves the dependencies of their respective mother countries, which viewed them with but little interest, excepting so far as they contributed to the wealth of the parent government. The English emigrants of the east, planted upon a soil uninviting for the most part, were prohibited by the parliament of Great Britain from engaging in those branches of industry which might compete with foreign labor; and the French government, which it is well known, previous to 1760, held the greater portion of the western states, confined the energies of the settlers to the adventures of the fur trade, which poured its cargoes into the port of Marseilles, instead of the cultivation of the soil. The policy of the two colonial establishments was moreover controlled by royal governors, resident in the colonies, and linked to the interest of their respective monarchs; and with such encumbrances, it could hardly be expected that either portion of the country should have made very rapid advances in the national enterprises which might have contributed to the commercial strength of those settlements.

With so sparse a population as the country then contained, being estimated as late as 1700 at only 260,000, and pressed down by such legislation, it is not to be supposed that the people should have advanced to any considerable growth in the interest of commerce. The few provisions which were raised from agriculture, and the product of the fisheries, together with the lumber, and the tobacco of Virginia and Maryland, the principle staple of those colonies, the last constituting nearly one third part of the total exports of the country, before the revolution, comprised the great bulk of our trade. Had the emigrants indeed been disposed to supply the adjacent territories with the products of their industry, they would have been unable to do so, in consequence of the commercial restrictions enforced upon the manufacturing interest by the mother country. Yet notwithstanding the despotic legislation of the parent government, we find the industry of the people early devoted, in some measure, to shipbuilding—an interest which soon attracted the attention of the British crown. Manufactures had already excited their jealousy, and why should the colonists be permitted to build ships that might operate as the agents of their commerce, since Great Britain had herself undertaken the business of supplying the colonists with the products required from abroad? But the emigrants who had settled upon the barren and rocky region of the New England seacoast, cut off in great measure from the pursuits of agriculture, were induced to direct their attention to commerce and navigation, and soon manifested a remarkable aptitude for the art of shipbuilding. The success of the colonists in this respect, soon awakened the jealousy of the mother country, and as early as 1670, Sir Joshua Child declared, "Of all the American plantations, his majesty has none so apt for the building of shipping as New England, nor none comparably so qualified for the breeding of seamen, not only by reason of the natural industry of the people, but principally by reason of their cod and mackerel fisheries;

and in my opinion there is nothing more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies, plantations, and provinces."²* But notwithstanding this jealousy on the part of the British crown, the amount of colonial tonnage which entered the provinces of what now constitutes the United States, from the year 1770 to the year 1771, was 331,644, and the amount cleared at the same time was 351,686. In this view of the early condition of American commerce, it may be interesting to exhibit the several proportions which were then owned by individuals. It is stated, that in order to save the duties, light money, and expenses, the tonnage was put down at less than a third of its actual amount; and accordingly the amount of tonnage employed in the colonial trade, may be fixed at about three hundred thousand. In order to show the proportions which were said to have been owned by different individuals, we here append the following table. It will be recollected that this tonnage was owned partly by British merchants, partly by merchants occasionally residing in this country, and partly by colonists who were citizens, and in the following proportions:

	Proportion belonging to British Merchants resident in Europe.	Proportion belonging to British Merchants occasionally resident in the colonies.	Proportion belonging to native colonist inhabitants.
New England, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, North Carolina, S. Carolina & Georgia,	1-8th, 3-8ths, 2-8ths, 6-8ths, 5-8ths, 5-8ths,	1-8th, 3-8ths, 3-8ths, 1-8th, 2-8ths, 2-8ths,	6-8ths, 3-8ths, 3-8ths, 1-8th, 1-8th, 1-8th.

The amount entered and cleared in the several colonies, during the same year, we here subjoin.

	Ent'd tons.	Cl'd tons.		Ent'd tons.	Cl'd tons.
New Hampshire,	15,362	20,192	Maryland,	30,477	33,474
Massachusetts,	65,271	70,284	Virginia,	44,803	45,179
Rhode Island,	18,667	20,661	North Carolina,	20,963	21,490
Connecticut,	19,223	20,263	South Carolina,	29,504	32,031
New York,	25,539	26,653	Georgia,	9,914	10,604
Pennsylvania,	50,901	49,654			

The business of shipbuilding was indeed deemed a profitable branch of industry in the colonies of New England, fifty ships being sold annually to the parent country. The ordinary mode of proceeding was, to freight these ships with lumber and provisions, and to send them to the West Indies, at whose ports they were laden with West India produce for Great Britain, where they were sold, and thus became a profitable remittance for British manufactures. During the following year, 1772, there were one hundred and eighty-two vessels built in the colonies, whose total tonnage was twenty-six thousand five hundred and forty-four; of which one hundred and twenty-three, comprising eighteen thousand one hundred and

* See Pitkin, p. 344.

forty-nine tons, were built in New England, fifteen in New York, one in New Jersey, eight in Pennsylvania, eight in Maryland, seven in Virginia, three in North Carolina, two in South Carolina, and in Georgia five. The actual condition of American trade and commerce prior to the revolution cannot be accurately ascertained. The regulations of the customhouse had not been thoroughly organized, and were seldom published; besides which, the returns that were sometimes made in London appear to have been imperfect. We here subjoin, however, the best report which has been furnished of the commerce of the New England colonies previous to the year 1776, commencing with that of 1697. It could hardly be expected, where the population was so scanty and labor was so crippled, that the amount of its commerce should have been very great, yet we shall perceive that notwithstanding these disadvantages, the colonial enterprise gradually increased from year to year, until it broke forth like the eagle, which bursts his cage and spreads his wings for the shores of the remotest sea.

Value of the exports and imports of the colonies of New England, prior to the revolution :

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Year.	Exports.	Imports.
1697	£26,282	£68,468	1750	£48,455	£343,659
1698	31,254	98,517	1760	37,802	599,647
1699	26,660	127,279	1771	150,381	1,420,119
1700	41,486	91,916	1772	126,265	824,830
1710	31,112	106,338	1773	124,624	527,055
1720	49,206	128,769	1774	112,248	562,476
1730	54,701	208,196	1775	116,588	71,625
1740	72,389	171,081	1776	762	55,050

It will be perceived from the above table that the imports from Great Britain into the colonies during the few years immediately preceding the American revolution, were greater, to a considerable amount, than they had been before that period, and Lord Brougham, in his "*Colonial policy of the European Powers*," attributes this fact to the probable occurrence of the revolution. "It appears from the customhouse books," says this writer, "that the average exportation to the colonies, now forming the United States, in the years 1771, 1772, and 1773, amounted to £3,064,843, and in 1784 it was £3,359,864. Yet the Americans imported more than their usual quantity during the years immediately preceding the 'rebellion,' because they were preparing themselves for their non-importation agreements, and during the first years of peace we cannot suppose that the British capital, which had been seeking different employments while the war lasted, should all at once find its way into the old channel."*

The early staples of export from the colonies of the United States were principally the furs and peltry which abounded in the forests, whale oil, derived from the hazardous enterprise of that species of the fisheries which was early carried on from the northern ports of New England, and also lumber, rosin, tar, pitch, turpentine, derived from North Carolina, where

* See *An Enquiry into the Colonial Policy of the European Powers*. By Henry Brougham, Jr., Esq., vol. I. p. 262.

they are produced to a great extent at the present time, and tobacco, as well as naval stores. Besides these articles, ginseng, oak bark, and other dyes, furnished important objects of commerce. Rice, which was one of the early products of South Carolina, and formed the chief support of its original settlers, was also shipped from its ports, to the amount of one hundred and sixty thousand barrels, in 1770. The various kinds of lumber wrought into the proper forms for ships and houses, as well as barrels, formed materials of considerable value abroad, transported as they were from a wilderness in which they were abundant; and during the year 1770, the total value of this species of product exported, was \$686,588. The value of the exportations of tar and pitch was also deemed so great, that in consequence of the attempt by the Pitch and Tar Company of Sweden, which had before supplied Great Britain, to raise the price of these articles, by prohibiting their exportation except in the company's ships, Great Britain was induced to encourage their production in this country, by granting a bounty of £4 per ton on the importation of tar and pitch, and £8 per ton upon the importation of rosin and turpentine from the American colonies;* and that bounty was so advantageous, that during the same year the value of the export of these articles was \$144,000, that of furs and peltry during this year exported from the country, including Canada, was \$670,000, while that of pot and pearl ashes was \$290,000—a society having been instituted in London, in 1671, which offered large premiums for the production of the last-named articles, and published treatises respecting the best mode of their manufacture, which were widely circulated throughout the colonial settlements. A substantial profit was also derived to the colonies from the cod fishery, which, from the earliest colonization of the country, constituted an important object of commerce to the provinces of New Hampshire and Massachusetts; a traffic which, prior to the revolution, annually employed four thousand American seamen, twenty-eight thousand tons of shipping, and produced three hundred and fifty thousand quintals of fish, then valued at more than a million of dollars. This fishery was prosecuted principally upon the banks of Newfoundland, the French, and subsequently the English, claiming the exclusive right of fishing in that region, in consequence of their owning the adjacent coast. Nor was the whale fishery an unimportant species of traffic, carried on as it was by a portion of hardy adventurers from the northern coast of New England, a kind of enterprise which we have before described.

Such as we have endeavored to portray it, was the condition of our colonial commerce previous to the American revolution, an event which cast a gloom over the whole country, paralyzing the mercantile enterprise of the nation, and converting the ploughshare into the sword, and the pruning hook into the spear, throughout its length and breadth. It must naturally have been supposed that but little of the foreign commerce of the American colonies could have traversed the ocean, when its surface was dotted by the ships of the most formidable maritime power of Europe, with which we were then at war; or that much of domestic trade would have been prosecuted when a foreign army of a powerful military nation was invading our shores.

The return of peace, in 1783, found the commercial condition of the

* See the Statute of 3d and 4th Anne.

country in a disordered state. The contest with Great Britain, protracted through the period of seven years, when the colonies were but poorly prepared for war, left the nation in a state of deep and wide-spread suffering. The national debt was estimated at \$42,000,375, the annual interest of which was \$2,415,956. As no funds had been provided for its payment, it became necessary that congress should organize measures for that object. By the original articles of confederation, the power of regulating the commerce of the country was lodged in the several states, and a recommendation of congress was made to the states, as early as 1781, that the states should delegate to that body the power to levy a duty of five per cent upon all goods, wares, and merchandise, of foreign growth and manufacture imported, with the exception of certain articles, and the amount thus raised should be appropriated to the payment of the principal and interest of whatever debts had been contracted, or should be contracted during the course of the war; but the recommendation was not complied with. This suggestion was again pressed upon the attention of congress upon the 18th of April, 1783, for the purpose of creating funds for the payment of the national debt; and it was enforced by a cogent address, drawn up by Oliver Ellsworth, Alexander Hamilton, and James Madison, and which advocated the payment of the interest, at least, of the debt. But the recommendation met the same fate as the former suggestion. Public and private credit were shaken. The requisition which was made by congress upon the states to fill the public treasury was not satisfied, on account of the public embarrassment; the public credit was destroyed, and the original debt was at length sold for one tenth of its original value. Upon the conclusion of the war, the country, unprovided with any well-organized commercial system which might have furnished a solid revenue, was flooded with foreign importations, which drained the nation of its remaining specie; and we are informed from an authentic source,* that during the two first years after that event, goods to the amount of six millions of pounds sterling were imported from England. Pressed down by such embarrassment, the country impoverished by a debt of one hundred and thirty-five millions of dollars incurred during the war, public credit gone, private credit impaired, its commerce and shipping nearly ruined, the dockets of the courts filled with the records of suits brought against those who before revelled in all the luxuries of life, and who had been the objects of forbearance while the war was pending, a dark cloud of commercial disaster thickened with a settled gloom over the wan and ghastly features of the nation; it was soon perceived that a systematic and efficient course of financial policy was necessary to rescue the country from the misfortune which had overcast its prospects. In consequence of this state of things, a proposition was made from Virginia for a convention; and, in accordance with that proposition, commissioners from the states of Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, and Delaware, met at Annapolis, in Maryland, in September of 1786, to take into consideration the trade and commerce of the United States, and to provide some uniform system for its regulation. These commissioners did not proceed upon the immediate object of their appointment, but drew up a report and address to their respective legislatures, in which they suggested the propriety of a

* Pitkin's Statistics, p. 30th; a work to which we have been largely indebted for the materials of the present paper, having often used its own language.

meeting of commissioners from all the states, to be holden in Philadelphia upon the second Monday in May, 1787, in order to take into consideration the condition of the country, and to organize some effective system for the protection of the national interests. This report, and also the address, were forwarded to the assembly and the executive of the several states not represented in the convention. A resolution of congress was passed February 21st, 1787, to the same effect, which, together with the former recommendation, induced the successful action of the people upon the subject. A general convention was accordingly held in Philadelphia during the month of May, 1787, and during September of the following year; a new constitution was assented to by the members of the convention, with General Washington at its head, and being ratified by a majority of the states, went into operation in March of 1789. With the spirit infused through the whole circle of American enterprise by that instrument, which was invested with the power to levy and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, and to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states and with the Indian tribes, every branch of industry began to revive. The fields began to wave with harvests, manufactures began to attract the attention of the country, and the snowy wings of commerce were soon seen flying from our ports to every shore.

It would seem that before the adoption of the present constitution and the establishment of regular customhouses, no accurate data were furnished of the commerce of the United States; but upon the return of peace, this commerce was revived, and we have by the English customhouse books the following account of the direct trade from England to the United States, from 1784 to 1790, according to the valuation of the English currency.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1784	£749,345	£3,679,467
1785	893,594	2,308,023
1786	843,119	1,603,465
1787	893,637	2,009,111
1788	1,023,789	1,886,142
1789	1,050,198	2,525,298
1790	1,191,071	3,431,778

The first congress under the new government directed its powers to the regulation of the national commerce, foreign ships were excluded from the coasting trade, and discriminating duties on tonnage were established, which gave a preference to our own ships; no regular system having been established for this object under the old confederation. About the same time, also, our commercial intercourse with China was commenced; the first vessel for that country having sailed from the port of New York, in February of 1784, and a complete monopoly of the China trade was soon given to the American merchant, by the imposition of a duty of from four to ten cents per pound upon all teas imported in foreign vessels. The ships of the country now assumed a national flag. Aided by such legislative assistance, the American tonnage soon swelled to a great amount, when we consider the space of time, which has been gradually expanding to the present period. The obvious cause of the unwillingness on the part of Great Britain to establish a liberal commercial policy towards this country, was the fact that no power existed in the colonial government previous to the establishment of the constitution

to organize any fixed and uniform laws of trade. The several colonies, although they possessed articles of confederation in which were lodged certain general powers, had no compact government which could enable them to pass laws binding upon the whole country for the regulation of its commerce. But as soon as the establishment of the constitution invested these powers in the general government, it was found advisable for our government to conform its own policy to the improved political condition of the country.

From the year 1783 to 1789, the period of the establishment of the constitution, there are no means of estimating the amount of American tonnage; but during the latter year, the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage had grown to 201,652. Other circumstances soon occurred to increase the profits of our national commerce, growing out of the wars in Europe, immediately succeeding our own revolution. The French government, inflamed by the military genius of Napoleon, after the king had been beheaded, appears to have set its mark upon the world; and pushing its conquests into the neighboring territories, arrayed against it a considerable portion of Europe. It was the design of this ambitious conqueror to enlist in his cause the sympathies and the aid of this country; but the firm spirit of General Washington took ground against it, and, backed by the support of the people, successfully maintained a neutrality. In consequence of the neutral stand which was taken by our own government, the country became the carriers of the greater portion of the world; a fact which not only increased the shipping of the country to a great extent, but was the source of a large amount of profit to the nation. The neutrality of the country, preserved through successive administrations down to the year 1807, during which period the old systems of colonial monopoly were abandoned, threw into our hands the commerce of a considerable portion of the world; and the spices and sugars of the south, and other portions of foreign trade, found their way to Europe in American bottoms. Besides, the extension of the agricultural resources of the nation contributed in no small degree to that result, as most of our agricultural products commanded at that time a high price in the foreign markets, and the British colonies were also in the same mode supplied with American produce. In order to judge correctly of the advance of our commercial interests at this period, an advance consequent upon that event, it may be stated, that the increase of the tonnage of the country within a space of fifteen years, namely, from 1791 to 1807, was unexampled; having reached within that time the amount of 480,572.

But the commerce of the country occasionally received its checks, not only from the French orders, but also from those of the British, in 1793, which prohibited the transportation of provisions to any port of France, and restricting our trade with the French West Indies; a policy which would have at that time created a war, had not the administration of General Washington effectually brought about a pacific treaty in the negotiation of Mr. Jay, in 1794, by which the merchants of our own country received about ten millions of dollars from the British government, in consequence of the depredations upon our commerce by ships of that nation. The treaty thus made with the British government, was regarded by France with much jealousy, insomuch that on its ratification, in 1796, a general seizure was made of American ships by the decrees of the French directory; a measure which brought us into a partially belligerent attitude to-

wards France, a difficulty which, however, was soon adjusted by a treaty made in 1800 with Napoleon, the first consul. During the hostilities which succeeded, France, Holland, and Spain were driven from the ocean, and the supplies to these countries were furnished by the neutral ships of the United States. The part thus borne by our national commerce in the neutral trade, termed by Great Britain "an interference," was naturally regarded with jealousy by the British monarchy, inasmuch as it prevented that government from bringing these nations to terms, as had been anticipated. The interference certainly threw formidable obstacles in the way of the British power, being denominated "war in disguise;" and it was the boast of a pamphleteer of the day, whose avowed object appears to have been to inflame the popular passions against the neutral trade, that "not a single merchant ship under a flag inimical to Great Britain, now crosses the equator or traverses the Atlantic ocean." Under a rule of 1756, it was originally claimed by the British government, that no neutral could carry on trade with any nation during war, which they were prohibited from prosecuting in time of peace; and deeming the previous neutral commerce of the United States a mere relaxation of that rule, it was considered expedient, under existing circumstances, to revive it. According to that determination, an American vessel was, in the month of May, 1805, condemned; a condemnation that was soon succeeded by that of others which had been engaged in the same service.

During the succeeding year occurred those well-known Berlin and Milan decrees by the Emperor Napoleon, in which he declared war against the commerce of Great Britain, a policy denominated the continental system, designed to grasp the dominion of the ocean. They proclaimed the British islands in a state of blockade, prohibiting all commercial intercourse with them, ordering the seizure of all British letters in the post-offices which were written in the English language, all British subjects found within French jurisdiction to be made prisoners of war, all property belonging to Englishmen lawful prize, condemning all vessels and their cargoes which had been to England or any of her colonies, and prohibiting their entrance into any port; "for," said the emperor, "Britain must be humbled, were it at the expense of throwing civilization back for centuries, and returning to the original mode of trading by barter." Into this continental system he soon brought the continental powers to co-operate. He determined that all neutral and commercial nations should give him their aid, by uniting with France against Great Britain; and the United States, he declared, should be his ally or his enemy. This policy, it is seen, would directly involve the neutral position of the United States; but in 1807, the accredited agent was informed that the Berlin decree would not affect the American commerce, which would be regulated by the existing treaties subsisting between the two nations. But the decree was soon extended to this country, the cargo of an American vessel having become confiscated. In opposition to the decree of the French emperor, the British orders in council were issued, declaring foreign ports in a state of blockade; and in consequence of the dangers to our commerce upon the high seas, an embargo was enforced by our government; and here commenced that series of commercial disasters in which our ships were seen locked up at our wharves, and the prospects of many of our merchants became involved in one general wreck. But in 1809 the embargo was raised, and in its place was substituted a non-intercourse law,

both with France and Great Britain. Thus affairs continued without any uniform and settled arrangement; the decrees of foreign powers being from time to time established and revoked, and our own vessels decoyed into French ports by the policy of Napoleon, until the war of 1812, which effectually checked, for a time, the commerce of the nation.

On the return of peace, a new era opened upon the auspices of American commerce, by the passage of what may be called the American navigation act, in 1817, modelled somewhat upon that of Great Britain; and attended with like advantages, conferring important benefits upon the country. This act established, that after the 30th of September, 1817, no vessel or boat engaged in the fisheries should be entitled to the bounties allowed by law, unless the officers, and at least three fourths of the crew, should be citizens of the United States, or persons not the subjects of any foreign prince or state; and that every vessel employed in the coasting trade, "except those going from one state to an adjoining state on the sea-coast, or on a navigable river or lake, or going from Long Island, in the state of New York, to the state of Rhode Island, or from the state of Rhode Island to Long Island," should be subject to a duty of fifty cents per ton, unless three fourths at least of the crew were American citizens, or persons not the subjects of any foreign prince or state. This act also declared, that after that time a duty of fifty cents was to be paid upon every American vessel entering from a foreign port, unless the officers, and at least two thirds of the crew, should be of the same national character during the voyage, with the exception of sickness, desertion, &c., in a foreign country.* Aided by such a law, together with the increase of the number of seamen of the country, and the extending population and enterprise of the nation, our commerce has advanced to its present state.†

On the termination of the war of 1812, new vigor was infused into every department of commerce. The colonization of the new states of the west, the increase of new subjects of cultivation, especially that of the cotton, and the augmentation of our population, together with the firm establishment of a compact and well-organized government, affording free scope to national enterprise of all sorts, tended to advance with rapid strides, not only the agriculture and the manufactures, but the commerce of the country; and it was soon expanded to the principal ports of Great Britain and France, Cuba and Mexico, Spain and China, Brazil and the Hanse Towns, Russia and Denmark, Hayti and the Argentine Republic, Sweden, Netherlands, Columbia, Peru, Malta, and Italy, adding large sums to our national wealth, and augmenting our general comforts. The extent to which what might have been formerly considered extravagance has been introduced among us, has also tended to benefit the carrying trade of the country, whatever may have been its influence upon the national wealth; for it will be remembered, that every article which is used in our own country, and which is not produced at home, must be imported from abroad. The obvious tendency of this luxury, doubtless, is to draw from the wealth of the country in the same proportion that it increases our commerce.

We have thus taken a rapid view of the political history of American

* See Holt's Navigation Laws, vol. 1, p. 104, article, "Navigation Laws of the United States."

† See Merchants' Magazine, vol. 3, 1840, pages 447, 448, 449, 450, 451, 452, and 453; also, vol. 4, 1841, pages 193 and 194.

commerce, for the purpose of entering more understandingly into its present state ; and it is obvious to remark, that the staples of our commercial export are wholly derived from agriculture, the forest, the sea, and from manufactures. As agriculture is the most important branch of our domestic industry, we propose in a brief way, first, to treat of this subject in reference to the carrying trade. Of late years this interest has grown upon us to a very great extent, from various causes, to which we shall refer. In the first place, the cultivation of cotton, which has been but recently introduced into the United States, and now constituting a considerable part of our foreign exportations, has been spread through a considerable portion of our southern states. Besides this important staple, the source of the greatest wealth to the country of any other of our agricultural products, wide tracts of new land, especially in our western states, have been brought under cultivation ; and that portion of our territory is pouring in upon us an immense amount of wheat and other grain, which are there produced, and either consumed at home or exported abroad. We may add to this the rice and tobacco, which are supplied by the south and the southwest, together with the vegetables furnished by the orchard and the garden, beef, horses, mules, butter, sheep, and other articles which are derived from stock husbandry and the dairy. Another important item of our foreign exports, is the products of the forest, the principal of which are lumber, skins and furs, dyes, bark, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, and ginseng, and which comprise the main bulk of our products derived from this source. The fur trade, which formerly prevailed to a great extent upon the northwestern part of our continent, along the shores of the great lakes and the Mississippi, and now prosecuted, not only by individual traders, but by the Hudson's Bay, and the American Fur Company—the latter of which now possesses an office in the city of New York—has been diminished in its profits, we believe, as also in the amount of the furs which are obtained ; but even at the present time it contributes no inconsiderable a part to the amount of our American freights, notwithstanding an extensive quantity is annually shipped by the Hudson's Bay Company, from the Columbia, as also from the port of Quebec.

Another source of domestic exportation is derived from the sea, and among the articles of this character which are furnished for foreign commerce, may be mentioned those of whale and spermaceti oil and candles, cod, mackerel, herring, shad, and salmon, salted and packed in barrels, which are furnished to foreign countries, besides those which are required for the home consumption. The whale fishery, to which we have before alluded, and which was early carried on from our own ports, has of late years grown to great importance, and has already become as lucrative an enterprise as is furnished by the country, occupying the shipping of many of our northern ports. The extent to which the oil is now consumed, and that, from the increase of our population and the numerous forms of mechanical enterprise which are beginning to be extended among us, is likely to be augmented, would doubtless furnish a profitable sale to the ship-owners of this branch of commerce, were it not required abroad. Besides the oil, which is thus used to a great extent, it is deemed a sufficient object to export the whalebone, which is used in various forms of manufacture.

The products of our manufacturing enterprise also constitute another grand branch of our domestic exportation ; and by manufacture, we mean not merely the cotton and woollen cloths which are derived from our fac-

tories, but all the articles wrought by the trades. Although the manufacturing interest of this country is but yet in its germ, still, considering the period in which our attention has been devoted to this subject, we have certainly made advances in this interest which are unequalled by those of any foreign nation. A period of fifty years has scarcely elapsed since the attention of the country has been seriously called to that object, or the nature of the government would permit any effective legislative action for its protection; and yet we have arrived to so great perfection even in this respect, that we have already not only furnished foreign nations with a considerable portion of its products, but in those which were of the greatest practical utility, we have supplied models even for England, being second to that country alone in the amount of our manufacturing enterprise. With such a territory as we possess, containing agricultural and manufacturing resources such as are enjoyed by no other nation, and settled by a people who are by our political constitution invested with a scope and motive for action that are furnished by no other nation upon the earth, we look forward with certain hope of a glorious destiny for our commerce. The resources of the soil, the character of our people, marked by a genius for trade, and our navigable advantages, all point to the period when our commercial flag shall wave in all parts of the earth, thus carrying to every nation the blessings of religion, liberty, knowledge, and civilization.

We turn from this view of the exports of the country to a consideration of the various articles which are imported from abroad, and it must be admitted that there is ground for amazement at the amount that is required by the growing extravagance of the people. Indeed, the influence of commerce, while it has been in many respects beneficial, has brought with it a taste for those luxurious habitudes of life which may perhaps more properly belong to an older nation, and that were unknown to our forefathers. This extraordinary extravagance which has thus crept in upon the country, outrunning the means of the people, has been expanded to greater extent according as money was abundant, and infusing itself into all the departments of pleasure and business, has been witnessed in various forms, not only in our domestic establishments, but also in our equipage, dress, and amusements. We have decorated our houses with all the adornments of taste gathered from foreign commerce, and proportioned our other expenses to a scale which the former facilities of credit would permit. And what has been the necessary consequence of this state of things? It has been just what may always be expected, in the end, of those who live beyond their means. Pay day comes sooner or later. The claim is lodged with the attorney, and either the property of the debtor must respond to the judgment which is obtained, or be assigned in mass to pay the debt. We doubt not that such has been the career of hundreds during the mercantile revulsions of the last few years, which have swept away in one general wreck thousands of our most enterprising citizens. The importer has sold to the jobber, the jobber to the retail merchant, and the retail merchant to the purchasers scattered over the country, each successively dependent upon the other for payment. But as the time has never arrived in which this payment could be made, the result has been that the articles purchased, although they are consumed, have not been paid for to this day, if we are rightly informed.

We have entered into this view of the subject for the purpose of touching a question incidental to that of importations, namely, the measure of

luxury in our own country inducing so great an amount. Even in the articles of silks and satins, laces, velvets, merinoes, and other fabrics of that kind, what a vast quantity must be annually expended, as well as in those finer broadcloths which are worn here by the other sex! Now we do not mean to maintain that the use of such articles is not to be encouraged, as we hold that every matter of taste should be. No person, certainly, could be a friend to labor, who would wish to see all arrayed in homespun; because it is the consumption of the various articles of manufacture which furnishes the market for its productions: but it is equally true, that, while in dress, as well as in other species of expenditure, we have as a nation gone beyond our means, we should endeavor to preserve that golden track, which we hold in all opinions and all action ever lies between the extremes! While we indulge in those elegancies and innocent enjoyments which throw a charm over the barren track of this working-day world, ought we not to avoid the excesses of expenditure which have sunk many thousands of families in ruin, and many a stout heart in the darkness and despair of blasted hopes?

In taking a broad survey of the domestic commerce of the country, we are impressed with the beautiful variety of resources which is unfolded by the soil and climate of its different parts. What an animating prospect is spread before the mind in the contemplation of the commercial industry which is acting upon the different portions of our wide empire, and what a vast amount of physical force is now operating in furnishing the materials of trade, as well as in its prosecution! We turn to the north, and we find the manufactures of that section of the territory supplying with its fabrics not only the south and west, but furnishing foreign countries with their products. The west, from its broad resources, returns in exchange its cargoes of wheat and other grains, which are sent down through the western rivers and lakes, supplying the wants of those who do not enjoy the advantages of so fertile a soil. The unbroken wilderness stretching towards the Pacific is sending its freights of rich furs and peltry to our own ports through the same channels, or packing them in the vessels which are from time to time moored in the Columbia and other streams of the Pacific, in order to their transportation abroad. The fields of the south and southwest are burdened with the abundant harvests of the cotton and tobacco plant, the sugar cane, and the rice field, which are transported to the north or to foreign countries, annually augmenting the amount of our national wealth. The seacoast is sprinkled with the ships which levy tribute upon the ocean for its aquatic tribes, from the mackerel that flashes in its depths like a bar of silver, to the whale that lashes it like the tempest. The ports which stud our Atlantic frontier are made the great reservoirs of commerce, through which are distributed to every part of the nation the comforts and even the luxuries of distant climes, all contributing to adventurous industry, and all adding to the grand aggregate of human power.

Turning from a consideration of our domestic trade, we look abroad upon the ocean, and there we find our commerce floating from the icebergs of Greenland to the burning sands of the African desert—from the marble pillars of the Acropolis and the walls of China, to the wigwams of the remotest savage upon the north Pacific and the snow huts of the Esquimaux. Its sails are filled by the blasts of the polar sky, and the zephyr that breathes upon the sunny fields and crumbling columns of Italy. It

stores its freights in the ports of Liverpool and Marseilles, or takes in its olives and maccaroni by the side of the Venetian gondolier ; everywhere increasing the amount of human knowledge, and acting as the agent of that liberty which is destined ultimately to brighten upon the world. The commerce of our own country, advancing with such rapid growth, and to such an influence as it now exhibits, is destined to perform an important part in those benevolent plans, which mark the present age. It has been nurtured under the auspices of sound principles, which are interwoven with the structure of our American society ; and while it seeks wealth by fair and honorable means, we doubt not that it will in the end give back some return for the blessings conferred upon it by a bountiful Providence, in lending its energies to the amelioration of the condition of mankind.

ART. IV.—MARYLAND, AND ITS RESOURCES.

THAT which is esteemed an article of merchandise in one country is by no means such in another ; and such is the case in reference to different sections of the same country. Commercial men are aware of these truths, without their being specified. Whenever an article is available, and can be transferred to market upon such terms as will cover the expense of transportation, however small may be the profits realized, it then constitutes an article of merchandise, and becomes one of the resources, either naturally or acquired, but in either case *commercially*, of such place. And such resources are denominated great, in proportion as the demand for them exists, and as the expense becomes inconsiderable in getting them to market, compared to the great profits realized. Such resources as are indispensable to subsistence are usually considered, as in fact they are, of paramount importance among all other classes of merchandise ; and if in making up a cargo luxuries can be safely introduced, it is sometimes of advantage : for merchants prefer generally consigning their cargoes where they are the more likely to have their orders filled with as little delay as possible ; and such districts usually have communication opened with points in the interior, from which such supplies as will constitute a return freight for the merchant are received, or the *trade* is incomplete, or not mutual.

Baltimore is the only port of entry of note in the state of Maryland, and is situated at the head of an estuary of the Patapsco river, from twelve to fifteen miles west of the Chesapeake Bay, and about one hundred and eighty miles southeasterly from Cape Henry. The port is approachable at all seasons ; and even in winter the navigation is kept open by the aid of two powerful steam ice-breakers and tow-boats, which are always in readiness for active service ; and ships of the largest class, as the charts will show, can enter the harbor, and load or unload alongside the wharves, the water being twenty feet, and off the wharves at Canton twenty-six feet deep. The internal improvements of the state are of great importance, as tending each successive year to develop new resources, and attach to them a real value which previously existed only in a warm imagination. The canals and railroads will, ere long, it is to be hoped, have reached the mineral and forest regions, as they are already approximating them,

insomuch that companies and individuals are already incited to acts of enterprise, as will be shown in the course of this article.

The soil of the state, except in a few portions of it, is well adapted to agriculture; the numerous never-failing streams, with gradual falls at suitable distances, particularly in the vicinity of Baltimore, for manufactures; and for commercial pursuits, having reference to the advantages before enumerated, Maryland is not excelled by any state in the Union. The great American Mediterranean sea, whose borders she skirts, will be a wall of defence about her in time of war, as an invading foe would scarcely dare withdraw himself so far from the ocean-field, in this improved age of invention, lest his retreat might be intercepted when he found it necessary to "about ship;" and the bosom of that sea will in early after-time waft treasures upon it, that whether in the character of imports or exports, they will add to her riches. *Nature* has incontestibly provided for this result; and the founders of Baltimore, not that any thing like prescience is to be ascribed to them as regards the state of improvements as they exist even at present, so located it, that it becomes a point of concentration, from whence again all the travel diverges, if economy as to distance be considered, whether the direction be from north to south or east to west, and *vice versa*. The near proximity of the seat of the national government is no drawback upon, but adds to her value;—and should congress in its wisdom authorize the establishment of a national bank, where is there a city, all matters in reference to other banks and places considered, more eligible and safe for the parent, than Baltimore?

Nearly all the great prominent agricultural productions of the United States are grown in Maryland, except cotton,* sugar,† and rice, and each year further developments are made in reference to some exotics. If there were agricultural societies and fairs held, as in some of the eastern states, where the choice productions of the earth could be exhibited, and competent persons appointed to pronounce upon them, and award premiums, it would act as a great stimulant to enterprise, aside from the profits immediately resulting to the grower. So with live-stock of all descriptions: but these subjects are somewhat neglected by the present tillers of the soil, and those of politics have to too great an extent usurped their places. Some fifteen or twenty years since, when Maryland was luxuriating in a more palmy sunshine of favors than at present, such exhibitions were then not unfrequent, and *politics slept*; there may be a recurrence of a similar prosperous period. Corn, wheat, and oats thrive kindly in every county; but the crop of wheat did not exceed an average one last year. Rye is not so generally cultivated, and the western counties appear more congenial to its growth, although the yield in two or three of the southern was respectable in the year 1839. Buckwheat, barley, and pulse are not so specially attended to. The yield of flaxseed is only middling,

* Some efforts have been made to introduce the culture of cotton, but their continuance will probably be found a waste of time.

† A company has been formed, and a year or two since preparations were made to commence operations in making sugar from the beet, as the land is very favorable in many places for its culture, and particularly along some of the shores of the Chesapeake Bay; but recently the enterprise appears to have been suspended. It may possible be resumed next year. Small parcels of maple sugar are made in Allegany county, say 30 to 40,000 pounds annually, but not probably as an article of merchandise.

compared with that of other grains. Potatoes are of excellent flavor, and the crops fair, but not sufficiently large to supply the consumptive demand. Small parcels of the sweet are to be met with in the Baltimore market, brought chiefly from the southern or eastern shore counties. Hay is the growth of the western shore counties, and consists chiefly of timothy, with some clover; but the quantity made never exceeds the home demand. The same counties are better adapted to the growth of fruit—apples and peaches in particular; some of which are very fine and most deliciously flavored. Melons, in their greatest varieties, are grown in all the counties. Tobacco, one of the principal staples of export of the *United States*, is cultivated in eleven counties of the twenty of this state; but mostly in Prince George's, Calvert, Charles, St. Mary's, Anne Arundel, and Montgomery—in the first-named county over 9,000,000 pounds in 1839; and in the latter five, over 12,000,000. Each county is more or less favorable for raising good stocks of horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, and swine. Of any of the other counties, that of Frederick excels; the returns by the marshals amounting to 11,259 horses and mules, 24,933 cattle, 26,309 sheep, and 54,049 swine. [Here it may not be out of place to remark, that the *bacon* cured in this county will generally command from one quarter to one half cent per pound more in the Baltimore market, than the same description of any other western.] All the counties contribute proportionably the yield of wool, which is not large; the stock of the state not exceeding 500,000 pounds per annum: of this quantity, however, as well as of butter and cheese, Frederick is the largest contributor, that of wool amounting to 59,000 pounds. All the counties are well wooded and timbered, with descriptions peculiar to the middle states. Of the most conspicuous for fuel, are the various species of oak; hickory, beech, and dogwood—the first selling usually in the Baltimore market, in all seasons, from \$4 to \$5 50 per cord; and the three latter at \$5 to \$7. Pine abounds plentifully; but the white and pitch, the first well known in the eastern states, and the latter in North Carolina, are not among the species here. In the western parts of this state terminates, except a small portion of the Allegany mountains in Virginia, the boundary on the south of the growth of the hemlock tree, so common in the New England states, where its bark is use for tanning. There is no better oak timber for shipbuilding, aside from the live-oak, than this state produces; and much of it is easy of access. The celebrated dam across the Kennebec river at Augusta, in Maine, was built of oak timber cut from lands in Baltimore county, near to one of the tributaries of the Chesapeake Bay, through which a canal to connect Havre-de-Grace, the head of tide water in the bay, is now much needed, and to obtain a charter for which efforts are at this time making, or were at the last session of the legislature. Cedar and locust are likewise abundant in some portions of the lower counties; where they are purchased, and with the oak taken to the eastern states, and used freely in shipbuilding. Considerable parcels of cedar and locust are also shipped to different points to aid in the construction of railroads. The shores of the Chesapeake Bay are well indented with navigable streams, extending back, some of them, to a considerable distance, inso-much that great facilities for coastwise navigation are afforded; in this manner much wood, lumber, bark, grain, live-stock, &c., the growth of the state, are taken to other markets, of which not a correct estimate can be formed, and therefore none will be hazarded.

The coal region is at present one of the unproductive portions of the state, and the most prominent adverted to about the commencement of this communication. It lies principally in Allegany county, and is mostly of the bituminous description. The expense already incurred in providing means for bringing it to market, by opening a canal from the Potomac river, at Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, denominated the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, having exceeded the estimates of engineers previously employed in the service; and a yet further heavy expense to complete it to the coal beds being ascertained to be necessary, before a profit can be realized, have placed the prospects of the party prosecuting very far in the background; at such a distance that, under existing circumstances, it is quite uncertain when this work of internal improvement will be completed. The distance yet to be opened is about fifty miles; and unfortunately, being the western terminus, the site is more than ordinarily broken, rocky, and even mountainous. That which is denominated the Frostburg Coal Basin, is particularly noticed by Prof. Ducatel, the state geologist, and his remarks in reference thereto will show in part the character of the region to which it is intended the canal shall extend. This basin is forty miles in length, and five miles in width, and contains 86,847 acres; which, at 4,840 square yards to the acre, and fifteen yards in depth, as it is known the bed of coal is, gives 6,305,137,287 cubic yards: and as one ton of coal occupies by estimation one cubic yard, there is in the basin named the number of tons of coal as expressed by the aforesaid figures! By a similar process, the quantity of iron ore ascertained to be imbedded in what is termed the Lonaconing section, in the same county, amounts to 3,237,576,144 tons; enough to yield, as demonstrated by actual practice, 1,079,191,714 tons of crude iron.* Notwithstanding the distant prospect, in reference to time, of making this portion of Maryland productive, or in other words, converting the minerals of it into merchandise, there are twelve incorporated companies already within its limits, with a chartered capital of \$6,700,000,† ready to make a demonstration, whenever an opportunity shall present, either by the canal before mentioned, or by the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, which will have reached within about ten miles of the nearest coal bed in the course of next year, 1842. One of the prominent companies, which has already performed much in exploring, testing, analyzing, &c., the different minerals, is the Maryland and New York Iron and Coal Company, whose capital is adequate to the enterprise in which the company is engaged. And another, the George's Creek Coal and Iron Company, have carried their plans so far into operation, for the purpose of testing the qualities of the material, expense of operating, &c., that they have erected a furnace and foundry; the former 50 feet high, with boshes of 4½ feet; and when in blast, the consumption of coal was 1,200 tons per month. The campaign was nearly of four months' duration, during which 900 tons of iron were made; the highest yield per week being 92 tons. The lump coal at the opening of the drift cost 50 cents per ton, and the iron ore \$2 50 per ton.‡

In other counties, which include Anne Arundel, Baltimore, Cecil, Frederick, Harford, and Washington, there are furnaces, foundries, rolling-mills, &c., established, at which some of the best and heaviest work in the United States has been executed. Two shafts for the Russian steamer

* Ducatel, Geolog. Report, 1840.

† Ibid.

‡ Ibid.

Kamschatka, now in progress of being finished in New York, were wrought at Ridgely's forge, on the Gunpowder river, about seventeen miles from Baltimore, each shaft being 22 feet 8 inches in length, 18½ inches in diameter, and weighing 18,000 lbs. The ore known as the Elk Ridge Hone,* is of superior quality; it is used much for the better and finer descriptions of casting; and large parcels are shipped weekly, mostly to New York. This and the other ores in the vicinity of Baltimore yield from 35 to 50 per cent. There is an ore denominated the *bog-ore*, which is found in Worcester county, on the eastern shore of the state, which was worked a few years since, but the furnace is probably not in operation at this time. The ore yielded only 29 per cent.†

Copper ore is found in considerable quantities in Frederick county, principally near the village of New London, in mines belonging to Isaac Tyson, jr., of Baltimore. In 1839, about forty tons of pig were obtained from this ore, which yielded about thirty per cent of pure metal; and the lot was taken by a manufacturer in Baltimore at the same price of the best Peruvian, and was found on working it to be equal in quality to any other description. Another mine is worked on a small scale in the same county, near Liberty, which is not quite so rich a vein, it is thought, as the first-named; but either might afford more profit to the parties interested, if they were worked with more energy; in such case, however, a considerable outlay would be previously necessary, and this again would probably make the formation of a company requisite, which event would be likely to check operations sooner than if the whole devolved upon an individual with ample means, which he could employ as best comported with his views.

The other *minerals* of the state consist of anthracite, granite, marble, quartz, soapstone, limestone, flint, sandstone, slate, potters' fire and pipe clay, asbestos, ochres of various kinds, chromes, aluminous earth, &c.; and on analyzing one or more springs, in several of the western counties, the waters were found to possess sulphate of magnesia, muriate of soda, sulphate of lime, muriate of lime, and carbonate of lime.

In reference to *manufactures*, it has already been stated that they are one of the characteristics by which Maryland is distinguished; it was so meant in part, because of the great water privileges which exist, and *might* be made productive; and because to a certain extent they are improved, as will be shown in the sequel. An examination of the water power, particularly in the vicinity of Baltimore, was made some years

* The authorities of Harrisburg, Pa., in constructing the works necessary for supplying that city with water, procured their pipes from the iron works of the Messrs. Ellicott of Baltimore. These pipes they pronounce to be "the best manufactured in this or any other country."

A New York paper, speaking of the extensive water works going on near that city, alludes to the excellence of the pipes manufactured by the Messrs. Ellicott, and says—

"The Common Council of this city have contracted with these gentlemen for a large supply. We lately saw a cargo of their pipes, of various sizes, landing on the wharf, and being somewhat of a judge of the article, do not hesitate to pronounce them beautiful castings. The iron, made from the Maryland ore, is celebrated for its strength, and acknowledged by mechanics to be as well, if not better, calculated for the purpose than any other manufactured in the country."

† J. H. Alexander, Top. Eng. Rep., 1840.

since by an engineer, for the purpose of imparting information to gentlemen in an eastern section of our country ; and those who read the report, now speak of it as very favorable, as well on account of their never-failing sources, as from their elevated courses, healthy climate, and the moderate expenses of labor. Some of the sites have since been improved, but there is yet room for hundreds more. It is no longer ago than last March, that a gentleman who had visited Baltimore and its environs, and informed himself, it would appear, pretty correctly of the *spirit* which he found existing, wrote, after his return, to the following effect : " There is another subject which I should like to see ably handled, *the unrivalled advantages of Baltimore and its neighborhood for the purpose of manufactures*. . . . There is not on the continent a location more favorable for manufacturing enterprise. Every thing is cheap ; and ready access can be had to all the markets in the Union. Nothing is wanting but enterprise and industry to make the whole nation tributary to your city. I am surprised at the apathy which seems to prevail on the subject. There appears not even sufficient interest in it to lead to the investigation of the facts." The foregoing extract comes so near to the truth, that it will be in vain to attempt a diversion : but the object at present is, not to show solely what *may be done*, but what *has been done* ; and this will be shown in the tables at the conclusion of this article. It may not be amiss to remark here, in reference to the *silk* business, that no official report having been made on the subject, the inference is, that it is left to take care of itself pretty much, under the auspices only of a few private families. The mania appears to have died with the *morus multicaulis*.

Agricultural Productions, Stock, &c., and Value on the Farm.

Wheat	bushels.	3,541,433	. . .	\$2,655,075
Corn	8,356,565	. . .	3,133,613
Oats	3,579,950	. . .	919,988
Rye	784,303	. . .	392,151
Buckwheat	47,858	. . .	35,894
Barley	3,614	. . .	1,450
Potatoes	1,058,901	. . .	211,780
Tobacco	lbs.	21,916,012	. . .	1,095,800
Hay	tons.	110,816	. . .	1,100,000
Hemp	117	. . .	14,140
Cotton	lbs.	7,108	. . .	700
Hops	2,368	. . .	473
Orchards	114,238
Market Gardens	133,197
Nurseries	10,591
Horses and Mules	No.	94,054	. . .	4,000,000
Neat Cattle	238,827	. . .	2,000,000
Swine	419,520	. . .	1,252,000
Sheep	262,807	. . .	394,210
Poultry	218,243
Wool	lbs.	502,499	. . .	100,500
Dairies	470,561
Beeswax	lbs.	3,684	. . .	921

Manufactures, &c., and their value.

Mills, Flouring	No. 212	bls. flour 460,220*	
do Grist	433		
do Saw	423		
do Oil	9		
do Powder	5	669,000	78,590
do Paper	16		195,100
Paints, Drugs, &c.			80,050
Factories, Cotton	15		2,348,580
do Woollen	29		235,900
Goods manufactured <i>at home</i>			182,530
Furniture			305,360
Potteries	22		61,240
Machinery			348,365
Hardware and Cutlery			15,670
Carriages and Wagons			336,672
Printing offices	47		
Binderies	15		
Soap	<i>lbs.</i> 1,857,416		92,870
Candles, tallow	722,355		93,903
do sperm and wax	35,000		14,000
Distilleries	No. 73	<i>gals.</i> 342,813	68,562
Breweries	11	529,640	105,928
Wine		7,610	7,610
Furnaces, Forges, and Roll- ing mills	30		
Castings		<i>tons.</i> 11,370	
Bar Iron		9,900	
Glass manufactory	1		40,000
Tanneries	159		
Sides, sole		No. 189,965	
do upper		291,867	
Shipbuilding		<i>tons.</i> 7,890	279,771
Cordage, Ropewalks	13		61,240
Bricks and lime	(bricks, no. 31,000,000)		384,356
Granite and marble, manufactures of			155,750
Tobacco, manufactures of			232,000
Sugar refineries	6		176,000
Chocolate			11,400
Confectioneries			68,400

Estimated proceeds of Mechanical labor, including the raw material, in some of the leading branches, viz:

Of 2 Copper Mills	\$500,000
3 Shot Towers	250,000
Carpet Factories	300,000
Blacksmiths' work	450,000
Tinners and Sheet Iron workers	250,000
Plumbers and Coppersmiths	100,000
Coopers	200,000

* Already estimated in the wheat, before grinding.

Basket makers	\$18,000
Hat and Cap makers	680,000
Boot and Shoe makers	1,500,000
Tailors, Habit and Dress makers	4,500,000
Saddlers and Harness makers	840,000
Morocco and Skin dressers	25,000
Others, miscellaneous	1,000,000

Inspections in, and Shipments from, the Port of Baltimore, of certain leading articles for the year 1840.

Tobacco inspected, Maryland,	hhds. 31,225		
Ohio,	8,436		
Other denominations,	977		
Total, hhds.	40,638		
Portion of previous stock,	3,574		
		Exported	44,212
Flour inspected, received from various places,	bls. 780,770	do	624,815
Wheat, do	bush.		435,783
Corn, do	do		1,816,952
Oats and Rye, do	do		394,614
FISH—Herrings, inspected, (caught in Maryland waters,)	bls. 72,370		
Shad, do (small part from N. Carolina,)	10,937		
Oysters, amount sold in Baltimore estimated—Forwarded to different places, by wagons, in the shell,		bush. 170,000	
Forwarded after being opened and pickled,		320,000	
Consumed in Baltimore		220,000	
	Total,	bush. 710,000	

Commercial.

Total number of vessels built in the state,	129
do amount of tonnage,	116,204½
do amount of imports for the year 1839,	\$6,995,285
do do exports do	4,576,561
do number of barrels of flour, inspected in the city of Baltimore for ten years, ending June 30th, 1840,	5,179,628
Averaging 517,962 barrels per year.	

The Population of Maryland, according to the last census, consists of—

White males,	157,926	White females,	158,645
Free colored males,	29,114	Free colored females,	32,823
Slave, do	45,970	Slave, do	43,749
	233,010	Total females,	235,217
		do males,	233,010
		Maryland, grand total,	468,227

Of the above, Baltimore contains—

White males,	38,825	White females,	42,496
Free colored males,	7,292	Free colored females,	10,688
Slave, do	1,166	Slave, do	2,046
<hr/>		<hr/>	
47,283		Total females,	55,230
		do males,	47,283
		<hr/>	

Baltimore, grand total, 102,513

The number of primary and common schools in the state is 562

do Scholars 16,321

do do at public charge 6,621

Number of white persons over twenty years of age who cannot read and write, 11,580

In the city of Baltimore, one male child, on an average, out of every 26 $\frac{1}{4}$ children under five years of age, lives to the age seventy-five years; and one female out of every 15 $\frac{1}{4}$ reaches that period of life. But the disparity is greater in the following counties; which are selected as the greatest antagonists in the state:

In Carroll county, 1 male child out of every 10 $\frac{1}{4}$ reaches 75 years.

In Queen Anne's co. 1 do do do 51 do

In Harford co. 1 female do do 7 do

In Calvert co. 1 do do do 39 do

ART. V.—FREE TRADE.

WHEN I furnished an article a few months ago for the Merchants' Magazine, under the head of "Free Trade," I had no thought of pursuing the subject any further: but the tone of the reply which appeared in the May number, seems to demand a few remarks. In making them, I shall be as brief as the nature of the subject will admit, and shall confine myself entirely to the matter at issue, without attempting to answer the discourteous language of my opponent's article.

I. The first position of the "remarks," is that "government may often confer a vast benefit on the whole nation, by extending to the struggling infant [any new business] its fostering, protecting aid, by means of a discriminating duty on the importation of the foreign article."

The author has furnished in another part of his "remarks" a reply to this position, which will relieve me from the necessity of repeating the arguments by which it was fully met in my former article. He says: "Undoubtedly there are imposts, levied by this or that nation, which operate *injuriously, and ought to be taken off.*" Now here he is undoubtedly right. All governments are composed of *men*, and frequently of very weak and selfish men; consequently, they are far from being infallible. If any thing is proved by experience, it is that governments are quite as likely to extend their "fostering, protecting aid" to a branch of industry to which the country is not at all adapted, as to one for which it has a natural capacity.

Take, for instance, the culture of beet-root sugar in France. This business was introduced into that country about the year 1811, and the government immediately extended to the "struggling infant its fostering, protecting aid." It laid a duty on all foreign sugar of about nine cents a pound,* and also taxed the sugar of its own West India colonies in such a manner as to extend the greatest possible aid to the producers of France. Under this forcing system a considerable quantity has been annually produced; but, after an experience of thirty years, it is still impossible to produce sugar in France as cheaply as in the West Indies, and a high duty is required to preserve those who are engaged in the culture from loss. A writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, some years ago, calculated the annual loss of the French people, arising from this mistaken protection, at over six millions of dollars, which, in thirty years, would amount to the very convenient sum of one hundred and eighty millions of dollars, the interest of which would, probably, supply France with all the sugar she consumes.

The corn laws of England are equally in point. It so happens that the landed interests have long held the power in the British government, and have, consequently, taken care to extend their "fostering, protecting aid" to the producers of grain. The duty commonly amounts to a prohibition, and is, therefore, of little advantage to the revenue; while the monopoly enables the landholders to exact large rents from their estates, the consumers being taxed to sustain the imposition. "If," says Mr. Hume in his testimony before the committee on import duties, "I am made to pay 1s. 6d. by law for an article which, in the absence of that law, I could buy for 1s., I consider the 6d. a tax, and I pay it with regret, because it does not go to the revenue of the country."

In our own country many articles have been fostered and protected after the same fashion. That of sugar is a conspicuous example. The Louisiana sugar planters have been fostered and protected for a long series of years, by a duty of about one hundred per cent; but to this day sugar cannot be produced, to any great extent, without the aid of a tariff. If this be so—if the protective policy is thus uncertain in its action—if governments are about as likely to inflict an injury as to confer a benefit—then, surely, for these reasons alone, even allowing there were no others, it would seem to be the part of wisdom to hesitate long before enacting laws which must unsettle the course of business, change large investments of capital, and urge men into enterprises which must lean on the crutch of the government for their support.

II. Under his second head my opponent contends, that "the high, invidious, protecting duties of other nations, and of nearly all the countries of the civilized world, absolutely constrain us to take care of our own producing interests."

This is an error which has been often refuted, and which lies at the foundation of much false reasoning on the subject of trade. It may be true that the high duties of other nations inflict an injury on us; but it by no means follows that we should neutralize that injury, or in any way better our condition, by adopting a similar policy. This is shown by the very example which Mr. Greeley has brought to prove the antagonist position.

* The duty was, in 1829, fifty francs per quintal.

"I will," he says, "take the case of two islands which, *isolated from the rest of the world*, have been accustomed to trade largely with each other. One of them produces grain in great abundance ; the other has a soil primarily adapted to grazing, and its surplus productions are cattle and butter. But the former [the grain island] for reasons of its own, imposes a duty of fifty per cent on all imports, and now cattle can be reared on her soil much cheaper than they can be imported. She takes no more from abroad. But the cattle-raising isle, unheeding the change in her neighbor's policy, or profoundly enamored of that system of political economy which assumes the designation of 'free trade,' still buys her grain where she can buy cheapest—that is, abroad. What will be the necessary result ? Who does not see that all the specie and other movables of the 'free trade' settlement, will be drained away to pay the constantly increasing balance of trade in favor of its protecting rival ?"

The effect which is here set down is by no means that which would follow. If the islands were really *isolated*, that is, if they had no intercourse with any other part of the world, then, of course, they consumed between them all their own productions, making such exchanges under a system of "free trade," as they found to their mutual advantage. By-and-by, however, the grain island prohibits the importation of its neighbor's cattle, and takes the production into its own hands. What follows ?

1. The inhabitants of the wheat island, deprived of their neighbor's cattle and butter, will convert some of their wheat fields into grass for the purpose of producing these articles : consequently, they have no longer any wheat to sell.

2. If they have wheat to sell, their neighbors cannot buy ; for this plain reason—they have nothing to buy with. They formerly had cattle and butter, but these are now refused, and they have nothing else. The trade must, therefore, cease ; and the grass-growers, like their neighbors, convert some of their fields of grass to the production of grain.

But, says my opponent, they *have* something else ; they have "specie and other movables." True ; and if their neighbors are willing to sell, and they can thus carry on the trade till their island undergoes the changes which their altered circumstances require, the inconvenience and suffering which would otherwise ensue, will be greatly diminished. But how would their condition be bettered by a retaliatory duty ? They now want wheat. They cannot buy it with cattle and butter, because these are refused. They muster up some "specie and other movables," which they can hardly part with, and just as they are about to accomplish a bargain, the government steps in with its "fostering, protecting care," and imposes a duty of one hundred per cent. "Gentlemen," says the customhouse officer, "you are welcome to buy this wheat, but for every dollar that you pay for the wheat, you must also pay over a dollar to me for the use of the government." I ask if, under such circumstances, the condition of these islanders would be materially improved by the retaliatory duty ?

The whole position is clearly a fallacy. Allowing that the "high, invidious, protecting duties" of other nations are a great annoyance to us, yet let it be remembered, that they are still more injurious to themselves, and to adopt them, in order to retaliate their wrongs, would be like seizing an enemy, and jumping with him into the river, in order to give him a ducking. For a more full exposition of this point, I refer the reader to

the "Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons of Great Britain on Import Duties."

III. The third proposition of the "remarks" is in these words: "Protection contends that the simple facts, that an article, if produced in this country, is sold at a certain price, while its foreign counterpart is sold at a lower price, do not by any means prove that the imported is, in truth and essence, the cheaper." What he means is, I believe, that the blessings of protection are so great, that we can better afford to pay five or six dollars for a yard of cloth under its auspices, than four dollars under a system of free trade. In order to prove this position, he has introduced a table, showing that in Londonderry, near the town of Lowell, the price of apples, cider, wood, potatoes, turkeys, and other heavy produce, have risen one hundred per cent, and that the inhabitants can, consequently, pay an advance of twenty-five per cent on the few yards of cloth which they consume, and still be the gainers.

I cannot suppress a feeling of surprise at this argument. Allowing it all to be true, and what does it show? Only that men in certain locations are benefited by the tariff. This position I acknowledged and met most fully in my former article. Surely the readers of the Merchants' Magazine do not need to be told, that wherever a village or a city springs up prices rise, and the farmers find a better market for their heavy produce. But will the farmer in Pennsylvania, who has to pay an additional dollar for every yard of cloth which he consumes, in order to sustain the price of turkeys and cider in Londonderry, thank my opponent for this argument? Does his Lowell village raise the price of apples and wood in Ohio? Of what paramount benefit is it to South Carolina and Virginia, which pay so largely for its support? It is, in fact, a mere local benefit, resulting from the accident of a village which has been forced into existence by taxes drawn from 17,000,000 of people. It is by such specious reasoning as this that protection has been sustained. I tell my opponent that high, discriminating duties are injurious to the wealth of *the nation*; and he replies, that it cannot be, because it has made the farmers prosper around the village of Lowell. I contend that they are prejudicial to the *general interests of production*; and he says, no! see how it has raised the price of cider and turkeys in Londonderry! I marvel (to use an expression of his own) that any one reasoning thus, should talk to others about "*schoolboy flippancy*."

IV. Under his fourth head the author of the "remarks" takes the broad ground that neither discriminating duties nor any other duties are injurious to the general well-being of mankind. He does not however attempt to sustain his opinion by any argument; and as it is pretty generally understood that expensive governments and heavy taxes are not among the choicest of Heaven's blessings, I shall not undertake further to controvert his views on this head. In the course of his remarks, however, he makes some observations which are better deserving of notice. For example—"I hold it demonstrable," he says, "that even *real*, genuine free trade* between a barbarous and an enlightened, a rudely agricultural and a refined manufacturing and commercial people, will almost infallibly im-

* Mr. Greeley supposes "free trade" in its proper sense to mean a trade equally taxed in all countries, and not free on one side of the Atlantic and taxed on the other.

poverish the former and enrich the latter." This position is sustained by the following argument:—

"Let us suppose a settlement, equal to the state of Missouri, were now in existence in the Oregon—its rude, half-civilized inhabitants engaged wholly in agriculture, clearing, building, &c.—and a good road led from St. Louis to its capital. Trade is brisk enough in one direction; silks, jewelry, spices, finery and foolery of all kinds are sure to be constantly on the way over. But what is there to come back? They have mountains of grain, beef, wood, and all the substantials of life; but none of these will pay a tenth of the cost of bringing them to St. Louis. The settlement is constantly plunging deeper in debt and embarrassment. Eventually, through revulsion, calamity, and depression of prices, it will arrive at the manufacture of whatever it shall want: but if it would have reached this end more directly by the imposition of a strong tariff, it would have avoided much disaster and suffering."

Now plausible as this seems, it is most certainly incorrect. A young mechanic, a young merchant, and a young country are all liable to get in debt, but their debts are often the very cause of their prosperity. How frequently does it happen that a mechanic reaches his majority without a shilling! He has, however, a good character, and under such circumstances is trusted for a chest of tools with which he goes on to make his fortune. It may be that the merchant who thus furnished his outfit has charged him exorbitantly, but he has, nevertheless, done him a substantial kindness; for without the tools he must long have struggled on in poverty. The parallel holds good with other pursuits, and especially with the new country.

Take the case of this very Oregon settlement. I will not, however, trouble the writer for his great St. Louis road, which seems to have been invented for the very purpose of making transportation impracticable. Laying this ingenious contrivance aside, what is the actual condition of things in the new settlement? The Oregonians are, of course, poor, for all new countries must necessarily be so. They are without what political economists call *fixed capital*—without substantial houses—without factories—without ships. Every thing is to be done: the forests must be cleared, the crops put in, saw-mills and grist-mills must be built; and although they have not the means of manufacturing them, yet they must have ploughs, rakes, cradles, knives, axes, cloths, cotton goods, powder, shot, muskets, and a host of other things which are absolutely necessary to their well-being. To make these things is impossible in the nature of things. A country so rude has neither the skill nor the capital. It would, besides, require ten-fold more time than it would require to fabricate them in another country, and time too, every moment of which is needed for other purposes. How then are they to be obtained? Anybody besides my opponent would have said, suffer them to be brought from abroad—let the shipping which trades to the Pacific and wants your supplies furnish them from other countries—barter your "mountains of grain and beef" which you cannot consume for those articles which you so pressingly need—burn your wood into potash, and trade it for cotton and woollen goods—exchange those things which you do not want for those things which you do want.

No, says my opponent, keep them out by a strong tariff. As sure as you exchange what you do *not* want for what you *do* want, it will make you poor and only enrich others. Close your ports, and see to it that

nothing is brought from abroad, for depend upon it these exotics will be your ruin. Strange doctrine indeed! As if in all fair trade both parties were not the gainers. Is the Indian who trades away his cartload of skins, which are of no earthly use to him, for a keg of powder and a gun, *impoverished* by the trade? Is a new country which has "mountains of grain, and beef, and wood," which it cannot use, and does not want, *impoverished* by a traffic which supplies to it the essentials of its existence? Is the farmer who pays his ten bushels of wheat, which are a drug in his granary, for a plough, on which his well-being depends, *impoverished* by the bargain? This policy of my opponent would not only tend to make savages and barbarians of the Oregonians, but would greatly retard their accumulation of wealth.

But I am told, in another place, that to advance the price of the domestic product is not the end of protection. This, my opponent attempts to show by the case of France and England, on page 433. But his argument disproves his own position. The duty being taken off, he informs us that "the heavy British importation and forced sale at once knocks every thing down fifty per cent." What was it that "knocked" every thing down fifty per cent? The want of protection? Restore the protective duty and the price rises. What other purpose is the duty required to serve? Nor does it by any means follow that the removal of the protective duty in the case cited would be the destruction of the French manufactures. If, according to the terms of the argument, the goods could be produced equally cheap in both countries, then the moderate duty required for the support of government would prove a sufficient protection, and give the advantage to the home producer.

But I am weary of answering positions which seem to me so obviously erroneous. In conclusion, I may say that I am as strongly desirous that our country should improve and develop all its resources as any advocate of the tariff can possibly be. I am, of course, not opposed to manufactures, to the production of silk, or to any thing else which will aid in giving employment to our industry. I believe, with my opponent, that "the great end of all political economy, is to provide each individual constantly with the employment best suited to his capacities, and secure to him an adequate reward." But all this, I hope, will not commit me to the logic, that it is either justice or sound economy to tax the seventeen millions of consumers throughout this vast empire, in order to benefit the farmers and manufacturers of Londonderry, or even of all New England.

ART. VI.—PROFITS OF MARINE INSURANCE.

THE MUTUAL SYSTEM OF INSURANCE.

AN article from a practical insurer in Boston appeared in the "Merchants' Magazine" for the month of May, which seems to require a passing notice, as its reference to the mutual system of insurance, and comparison of the claims of that system with those of joint-stock companies, to the public favor and confidence, form the prominent subject of discussion; and, as might be supposed from the position occupied by its author, pre-eminence is claimed for the latter.

It may be sufficient, in the outset, to state in brief wherein consists the whole difference between the rival systems ; and it is confidently believed that the mere enumeration of these particulars will at once establish, and beyond controversy, the far higher claims of the former, as well as the ground of greater security to the insured, as on that of a more equitable division of the profits. They are these :

1st. No part of the profits of those institutions is ever paid out until the winding up of the concern, but accumulates from year to year, thereby in the same progression adding to the security of the insured ; and,

2d. The profits, instead of being divided among stockholders, revert to those who paid them in.

To provide security for insurers when commencing business, is a measure of just policy, and, as will be shown hereafter, was fully adopted by the institution presumed to be referred to. Having thus, as we conceive, demonstrated the superior advantages of the mutual system, we proceed to consider the general subject of the profitableness of underwriting.

The business of insurance, like every other, can only be supported by adequate means ; by which we mean, in relation to insurance, that the premiums must be sufficient to pay expenses and losses, and leave a profit : and if such an equivalent is obtained, the mutual system must succeed—and without it, it cannot ; neither can the joint-stock companies. The individual that spends more than his income, will not be long in ascertaining the result of his financial operations ; and upon the same principle, a company that will *underwrite*, or assume risks, at rates that are below an equivalent, and continue to do so in spite of bitter experience, cannot fail to realize the fruits of its mistaken policy.

We presume it will be readily admitted that joint-stock companies are instituted chiefly with a view to benefiting the holders of the stock ; and consequently, should they cease to yield a profit, the owners, stimulated by their own interests, investigate the causes, and provide, if practicable, a competent remedy. And we propose to show, and think we can demonstrate the proposition, that if joint-stock companies can sustain themselves, and yield a profit to their stockholders, so can those doing business upon the mutual system, and by the same means.

As an evidence of the insufficiency of the mutual system, the writer of the article in question presents the following statement, as the result of the business of fifteen companies, in Boston, from 1830 to 1839, inclusive.

Amount insured,	\$344,661,909
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Nett premiums thereon,	\$5,701,582
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Actual losses,	5,778,288
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Showing a clear nett loss of	\$76,706
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This we take to be conclusive testimony that the premiums were too low, and in fact, they were much below the present rates. If the premiums had been increased but ten per cent on the business of 1830 to 1839, it would have increased the aggregate \$570,000 ; from which deduct the actual nett loss of these years, viz, \$76,706, and it will be perceived that there would remain nearly a *half million of clear profit*. And this addition could have been readily obtained, had the insurers insisted upon its necessity, not only as an indemnity for their labor and risk, but ultimately for the security of the insured.

This difference, it will be seen, is predicated on an addition of ten per cent only ; whereas the rates now charged are much nearer to an equivalent for the risk, than they were during the nine years in which the Boston companies suffered. Yet it must be apparent to every experienced insurer, that the rates for annual risks are not now, nor have they ever been, high enough to render the business, as a distinct branch, desirable, and more especially on vessels of low value. It seems, too, to be inequitable to exclude this latter class of risks, as the owners are generally persons of comparatively small means, and who cannot afford to take the risk themselves ; and therefore we think that insurance companies should be ready to name a premium for any and all sea risks that may be offered them. We have known the premiums on vessels by the year, without distinction of class or value, as low as four per cent, and to and from ports east of the Cape of Good Hope, at two and a half per cent for the voyage ; and to Cuba, one, and to American ports in the Gulf of Mexico, at one and a quarter per cent ; while at the same time it was ascertained, by comparing the losses of several consecutive years, that six per cent could barely cover the losses to the last-mentioned ports, leaving nothing for expenses and profits. This was about twenty years ago. The vast increase of business to those regions, and the better quality of the vessels traversing the Gulf, and the improved knowledge of the navigation, have tended to lessen the losses, although it is morally certain that the recent reduction of the premiums to ports in the Gulf will be found inadequate to sustain the business ; and prudence, if not self-preservation, demands that the recent rates should be re-established.

The writer of this has been engaged in the business of insurance upwards of twenty years, and during that period has witnessed the ruinous effects of a competition having for its object the prostration of a rival, or the senseless effort to make a profit for stockholders on reduced premiums, when they have failed to realize it at what others have found only an equivalent.

The institution over which the writer of the article we are considering has presided for a long period of years with great skill and ability, and a success that has experienced but little interruption, furnishes in that success conclusive proof of the utility of the mutual system, which we confidently believe is destined to supersede that of joint-stock companies.

That institution went into operation some twenty years since, with a capital of \$150,000, which was subsequently increased to \$300,000, and it has added to that, by an accumulation of profits, \$200,000, and now advertises* a schedule of its investments, in securities of the highest order, \$570,000, of which \$500,000 is denominated capital. During the period it has been in operation it has paid out, in dividends, upwards of \$600,000. We may have underrated the sum, but do not think that we have overrated it. Had the sum thus paid out been funded, as it would have been under the mutual system, and as the sum of \$200,000 of profits was, its capital now would be nearly \$1,200,000, instead of \$300,000, as it was originally.

Take another illustration of this accumulative system, which we find stated in the same publication, at page 471, of the operations of a company in this city for ten years, being the period of its existence. In that time it "has divided two hundred and forty-nine and one half per cent,

* See Merchants' Magazine Advertiser for June, 1841, page 1.

and has a surplus now on hand of one hundred and fifty per cent," (probably intended for \$150,000,) "which, if divided, would give the stockholders their capital, \$350,000, and three hundred per cent; and if the interest were added, the sum would be much larger." Three hundred per cent is 1,050,000, which added to the capital would be \$1,400,000.

And there are other companies which have been in operation for a much longer period that would, had their profits been funded and added to the original capital, have amounted severally to 1,500,000 or 2,000,000. If any of these capitals have been impaired, it is owing to their having paid away all their profits, instead of funding them, as the mutual system provides, and which cannot fail, under ordinary good fortune, to furnish ample and unexceptionable security to the insured.

The charter of the company established in this city upon the mutual system, required as a condition precedent to its issuing policies, that it should have received application for insurance to the amount of \$500,000; but the trustees being desirous of placing the institution at once upon a basis that would entitle it to confidence, adopted the plan of taking notes, to the amount of \$200,000, of individuals or houses that contemplated insuring with the company, in anticipation of the premiums, which notes *were to be paid in any event*. They were therefore pledged as capital, and the pledge was honorably redeemed at maturity.

On the 18th of December, 1839, one year from the date of its first policy, it declared its first dividend, payable in scrip, amounting to \$47,287, which was 14 per cent upon the amount of earned premiums for the year ending on that day.

The aggregate of premiums for the year was	\$517,808
Losses, return premiums, and expenses,	290,478
Terminated premiums on the business of the year,	337,765

On the 18th December, 1840, it declared its second dividend, payable in scrip, amounting to \$90,757, which was 19 per cent upon the amount of earned premiums for the year ending on that day.

The aggregate premiums for that year were	\$603,702
Losses, return premiums, and expenses,	382,392
Terminated premiums on the business of the year,	473,149

And the same day it declared a dividend upon the scrip of the year 1839, of six per cent, payable in *money*.

The scrip is not redeemable during the existence of the charter. Every person doing business with the company is entitled to all the privileges of a stockholder, and at the end of the year receives in scrip his proportion of all the profits derived from its business, thereby obtaining *his insurance at its cost, and is free from all liability whatever from any loss, beyond the premium he had paid, or secured to be paid*.

So very favorable a result naturally induced the inquiry, whether a system that proposed to return all the profits of its business to the parties insuring with it, was not to be preferred to any other; and the consequence has been, that from the 18th of December, 1840, to 18th of May, 1841, the premiums have amounted to \$364,280, showing an increase over that of the corresponding period of 1840, of \$123,345, or over 50 per cent; and it has now entire the profits of 1839 and 1840, \$138,044, and premium notes deposited for collection and to be deposited \$450,000, making an aggregate of \$588,000. These facts, with a constant increase of business, we take to be a sure indication that those who are most deeply inter-

ested in the stability and security of the institution, are satisfied that ample means exist for every contingency likely to arise.

Had all the joint-stock fire companies in this city been incorporated upon the plan of that of which we are now treating, and the profits been retained and funded, and the interest derived from the investment only distributed, and "*the sufferers by the great conflagration which took place in New York in 1835, had been insured by mutual insurance companies,*" with such "capital, instead of those which then existed," how many "LESS" insolvencies would have taken place! How many "LESS" bad debts would have fallen on the merchant and the banks! We quote the language of the author, simply transposing a portion of the text, and substituting the word *less* for *more*,—a liberty which we trust will not be deemed a cause of offence, but rather as a compliment; for we are free to declare, that we should have found it difficult to have originated any other that would have satisfied us so well as the illustration he has afforded, and which we have used, as we believe, both decorously and respectfully.

In closing, we would remark, that the company in this city established upon the mutual system, is not the borrower of a dollar; that *all its assets* are under its sole control; and that the excess of profits over and above all known or anticipated claims, and after a season of severe losses—only paralleled, within the memory of the writer, by those of the winter and spring of 1831 and 1832—would enable it this day to make a handsome dividend upon its earned premiums since December 18th, 1840.

ART. VII.—QUESTION OF AVERAGE.*

ZEBEDEE COOK, JR., Esq.

President of the Mutual Safety Insurance Company, N. Y.

DEAR SIR,—I enclose herewith my opinion on the case stated, as to the adjustment of an average for detention to refit.

I am very respectfully, yours, &c.

WILLARD PHILLIPS.

Boston, March 23, 1841.

The following case has been stated to me for my opinion:

A vessel on her voyage from New Orleans to New York, parted her fore-peak halyard block-strap, main-boom topping-lift, main-peak halyard block-strap; carried away her main gaff and the leach rope of her foresail; split the bonnet of her jib, and split her balance-reef and foresail, and split to pieces her foresail; her false keel worked off, and came up alongside—it was found to have been fastened by four long spikes only; and she had stranded her jib-stay. These different injuries happened at different periods of her passage. She had not touched ground on the passage. She did not leak either in her bottom or her upper-works. The vessel being thus in a crippled condition, and the master being fearful of losing the masts, bore away for Savannah, as a port of necessity, for repairs, on the

* Furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine, by ZEBEDEE COOK, JR., Esq.

23d of November. It is admitted that the master acted properly in bearing away for Savannah. He sailed thence on his voyage on the 16th of January, after making the necessary repairs, and having taken on board additional cargo for New York, without any detention for this purpose over the time taken for repairs. The vessel was hove down at Savannah, a new false keel was put on, and she was caulked and painted. She would have required a thorough overhauling on arrival at her port of destination, and her bottom must then have been examined, and she must have been caulked and painted, had she not put into Savannah.

The questions raised on the above case are :

1st. Whether the whole expense of delay is to be put to general average.

2d. Whether the freight of the cargo taken at Savannah is to be credited to general average.

The questions presented will be decided in the same way, whether the vessel was or was not insured. It is settled in our jurisprudence, as I understand the law, that if, without any fault of the owners, or any fault of their agents, which is imputable to them, the vessel, by reason of injuries from the perils of the seas, justifiably puts away for a port of necessity, the expense of her detention is general average. Lord Ellenborough says: "It is not so much a question whether the first cause of the damage was owing to this or that accident, as whether the effect produced was such as to incapacitate the ship, without endangering the whole concern, from further prosecuting her voyage, unless she returned to port and removed the impediment."—3 M. & S. 432, *Plumer v. Wildman*. This is the doctrine generally, and I believe universally, adopted in this subject. Whether the injury to be repaired is such as underwriters are answerable for in the ordinary forms of policies, or is for the owners to repair at their own expense, without any recourse to the cargo or to underwriters. Provided the necessity arises from perils of the seas, without the fault of the assured or his agents, the expense of putting in is a subject of contribution.

The present case states that there was a necessity for going in, and no fault is imputed to the owners or their agents. There is, accordingly, no question that the expense of going in is a subject of general average contribution.

The only question in this part of the case then is, whether the expense for the whole delay, or if not, for what part of the delay, is the subject for contribution? To answer this question we must inquire, what was the object of making a port of necessity, and how long the vessel was detained by those objects? And it is evident that the object, as far as the cargo is concerned—that is, as far as the general average is concerned—is limited to the voyage—that is, in this case, the passage to New York. The shipper has, of course, nothing to do with any wants, injuries, defects, or repairs, other than those connected with and necessary to the prosecution of that voyage. If the ship delay for other repairs or objects, the shipper is not liable to any contribution for such delay.

It may not necessarily follow that the master is in fault for longer delay than merely for the purpose of obtaining the necessary repairs for the particular voyage. At least I will assume, for the present purpose, that he may, under some circumstances, delay a longer time, and that in the present case, if he did in fact delay such further time, he was justified in so

doing. But though he may be justified, still the cargo is not liable to contribute for any thing not connected with and essential to the prosecution of the pending voyage or passage.

The case as stated suggests a question of the seaworthiness of the vessel, by reason of the imperfect mode of attaching the false keel. If the vessel was not in a suitable condition to prosecute her voyage without a new false keel, then she was not seaworthy when she sailed from New Orleans with a false keel insufficiently fastened; and the owner cannot claim a contribution from the shipper for delay for the purpose of putting on a new false keel, which, by his implied stipulation of seaworthiness, he was bound to have put on before commencing the voyage. And whatever is done at the port of necessity, which the owner was bound to have done at the port of departure, gives no ground for claim on the cargo for contribution for the delay on this account. The only question in this respect is, whether the owner is liable to the shipper for damage on account of the unseaworthiness of the vessel. If such a keel is not essentially necessary to the safe prosecution of the voyage to New York, then the cargo is not liable to contribute for the delay in putting it on. And I am told by persons skilled in shipbuilding and navigation, that the circumstance of the false keel coming off in the manner stated in the case, would not, of itself, be a reason for bearing away from the course of the voyage.

The ship did not leak before bearing away, and, accordingly, from the case as stated, I do not see any ground for demanding of the cargo contribution for delay for the purpose of caulking.

Undoubtedly no such claim could be made for any delay merely for the purpose of painting.

The object then of going in, as far as the cargo is concerned, were the necessary repairs wanted for the sails and rigging or upper-works, for the purpose of safely proceeding on the voyage. And the cargo ought to contribute towards the expense of the delay necessary for those repairs, and those only.

2. As to crediting to general average the freight of goods taken in at Savannah, it is a novel, and certainly a very interesting question.

Suppose part of the cargo to be spoiled in consequence of the delay at the port of necessity, (as in case of the claret wine spoiled by delay at Jamaica,) so that the freight upon such part is lost to the owners of the ship, and the goods themselves to the shipper, could the loss of this freight, and the goods also, be brought into the general average? Such a loss has sometimes happened in case of a cargo of fruit. If the goods on freight are lost in direct consequence, and as the immediate result of the voluntary act of the master, done with the deliberate intention of making a sacrifice for the general benefit, this is a subject of contribution. But in all respects, except the voluntary sacrifice, including, of course, its direct consequences, the parties interested in ship, freight, and cargo, respectively, still maintain the same mutual relations, during the seeking of a port of necessity and delay there, as during the other parts of the voyage. The bearing away is not the commencement of a new partnership and community of risks and profits between the respective parties during detention. In all other respects, excepting the voluntary sacrifice, the voyage is still proceeding, during the detention as well as before and after. The underwriters on either of the interests for the voyage, are still liable during the detention for the same risks as before, and the stipulations of the charter

party or bills of lading still hold during this period as before and after, and each insurable interest has its separate risks, and separate profits and losses, in all other things whatsoever, excepting the specific voluntary sacrifice. If the ship is accidentally wrecked during the detention, and the cargo saved—or if the ship is captured and condemned, and the cargo restored and freight paid, there is no community of interest in this good or bad fortune; though it might appear that if the master had not voluntarily borne away for a port to refit, or had borne away for a different one, ship and cargo might perhaps have arrived safe. In such case it can only be said they might *perhaps* have arrived, for it is not possible to *know* what would have happened in the pursuit of a different course. It can only be said that there is a possibility, or at most a probability, that this or that result might have followed. It can be known what actual sacrifice has been made, or expense has been incurred, purposely for the general safety, and this must be made good by contribution; but if we go beyond this, and inquire what collateral and incidental good or bad fortune has arisen to either of the parties, by reason and as remote consequences of the measures taken for the general safety, we shall soon be bewildered in vague speculations and conjectures.

The shipper may find a better market for his goods at the port of necessity than at the port of destination; and if all the incidental advantages and disadvantages of putting in are to be included in the adjustment of the general average, the profit thus made should be brought into account; but no example is to be found of such a claim being made, and much less of its being allowed.

If the original shipper is to be a partner in the freight of the goods shipped at the port of necessity, he ought, as a consequence, to be jointly responsible with the ship-owner on the stipulations of seaworthiness, and the expressed stipulations in the bill of lading, to the shipper of goods at the port of necessity. This would be a plain consequence of the doctrine of a joint interest in freight. This is a very grave objection to any such joint interest.

For these reasons it appears to me that the freight of the goods shipped at Savannah in the case stated, ought not to be credited to the general average.

W. P.

ART. VIII.—THE LAW OF CONTRACTS IN MISSOURI.

As the trade of Missouri, now the largest, in extent of territory, of any of the states of the Union, is constantly increasing and becoming of more importance, as the population of the country west of the Mississippi increases, a more extended account of the law of contracts, and the methods of enforcing them, than appeared in a former number of the *Merchants' Magazine*, may be thought worthy of notice.

And first, the law of contracts. By the revised statutes of 1835, all contracts which, by the common law, are joint only, shall be construed to be joint and several. And in case one of several joint obligors or promisors die, the joint contract or debt shall survive against the heirs and representatives of the deceased obligor or promisor, as well as against the

survivors, instead of compelling the plaintiff to prosecute the survivors to insolvency, as at common law. When all the obligors are dead, the action survives against the heirs and representatives of all the deceased obligors. In all cases of joint obligations or promises of copartners, suits may be brought and prosecuted against any one or more of those who are so liable.

In the case of bonds and notes, which are made payable to any person, or order, or bearer, and signed by a party or his agent, such bonds or notes shall import a consideration. All bonds and promissory notes shall be assignable, and the assignee may maintain an action thereon in his own name, for so much as was due at the time of the assignment, in the same manner as the obligee or payee might have done. The nature of the defence of the obligor is not changed by the assignment, and every just discount and set-off must be allowed, unless it be expressed in the bond or note that the sum therein specified shall be payable without defalcation or discount. The assignor, after assignment, cannot release any part of the demand, nor can the assignee ever obtain any greater title or interest in the bond or note, than the assignor had at the time of the assignment. Every promissory note for the payment of money, expressed on the face thereof to be for "*value received*," negotiable and payable "*without defalcation*," has the same effect, and is negotiable in the same manner as inland bills of exchange. Negotiable notes, and notes made payable to bearer, are placed on the same footing with inland bills of exchange. Notes made payable to the order of a fictitious person, and negotiated by the maker, have the same effect against the maker, and all persons cognizant of the facts, as if payable to bearer. The assignee of a bond, or of a note not expressed to be for value received, and payable without defalcation, can maintain an action against the assignor, upon failure to obtain payment from the obligor or maker, only in the following cases.

1st. If he use due diligence in the institution and prosecution of a suit at law, against the obligor or maker, for the recovery of the money or property due, or damages in lieu thereof. 2d. If the obligor or maker is insolvent, or is not a resident of, or residing within the state, so that a writ would be unavailing, or a suit could not be instituted.

The law concerning the acceptance of bills of exchange is very similar to that of New York.

Bills, where the parties reside in this state, if protested for non-acceptance, draw four per cent damages on principal sum specified in the bill. If drawn upon persons not residing in this state, but within the United States, ten per cent on the amount of the bill ; if out of the United States, twenty per cent.

Bills accepted, and protested for non-payment, draw the same damages as if protested for non-acceptance. The damages in all these cases, however, are in lieu of interest, and all charges of protest, and other charges incurred previous to the time of giving notice ; but after notice the holder can claim and receive legal interest on the principal sum expressed in the bill, and damages.

2d. As to the mode of enforcing contracts.

In the case of bonds and notes, the method of enforcing the contract is, probably, shorter and simpler in Missouri than in any state in the Union. By the statutes of 1835, regulating the practice at law, any person being the legal holder of a bond or note for the direct payment of money or

property, may sue thereon in any circuit court having jurisdiction thereof, by petition in debt. The circuit court has original jurisdiction in all suits upon bonds or notes for more than one hundred and fifty (\$150) dollars exclusive of interest, and concurrent jurisdiction with justices of the peace in all cases under one hundred and fifty, and above ninety dollars.

The petition in debt may be in the following form, which must be strictly followed, or it will be liable to special demurrer.

To the ——— Circuit Court : ——— plaintiff, states, that he is the legal owner of a bond, or note, (as the case may be) against the defendant ———, to the following effect—(here insert a copy of the instrument sued upon;) yet the debt remains unpaid: therefore, he demands judgment for his debt, and damages for the detention thereof, together with costs.

If the plaintiff be the owner of the instrument sued upon, as assignee thereof, the fact of assignment shall be stated in the petition, and the statement thereof may be in the following form: "On which are the following assignments, (here insert the assignments) by virtue of which the plaintiff has become the owner thereof." The petition, together with the instrument sued upon, and the assignments, shall be filed in the clerk's office, and a writ of summons may be sued out, executed, and returned, in the same manner, and with the like effect, as upon a declaration in the ordinary form.

If the defendant is personally served with process, he must plead to the merits on or before the second day of the term, and the suit shall be determined at the same term, unless continued for good cause. A suit instituted in the form prescribed, shall be proceeded in to final judgment and execution, as if instituted in the ordinary form, and every defendant served with process twenty days before the return day thereof, shall appear to the suit at the return term of the writ.

The action of petition in debt is a legal action, and the general issue *nil debet*.

A suit by attachment can be commenced, when the debt is more than fifty dollars, upon an affidavit of the defendant, or of some other person, filed with the declaration, that the defendant is justly indebted to the plaintiff, after allowing all just credits and set-offs, in a sum (to be specified in the affidavit,) and also stating that the defendant is not a resident of, nor residing in the state, or that the debtor has absconded or concealed himself, so that process cannot be served upon him, or that he is about to remove his property out the state, or that he is about fraudulently to remove, convey, or dispose of his property, so as to hinder or delay his creditors.

Any person having goods or chattels of the defendant, or being indebted to him, may be summoned as garnishees, to answer such questions as may be proposed to them by the plaintiff, concerning their indebtedness to the defendant; and if they have such goods or moneys, they must be paid to the sheriff after execution issued.

A party imprisoned for debt, upon a written application to any judge of the supreme court, circuit court, justice, or clerk of the county court of the county in which he may be, by surrendering all his property to the use of his creditors, and presenting a schedule containing a list of all his creditors, the place of residence if known, the sum due and on what account, and an inventory of all his estate, real and personal, and by making affi-

oavit as to the truth of the facts stated, may be discharged from imprisonment, until the end of the next term of the circuit court, when, if the facts alleged be proved, he may be finally discharged, and is exempt from imprisonment for all liabilities which he was under at the time of his application.

Judgments and decrees rendered by the circuit and county courts, are a lien on the real estate of the person against whom they are rendered, situate in the county for which the court is held. Liens commence on the day of the rendition of the judgment or decree, and continue for three years, subject to being revived, under a *scire facias*, by the plaintiff or his legal representatives; and real estate includes all estate and interest in lands, tenements, or hereditaments, liable to be sold under execution.

By the statute of limitations, no action can be maintained for the recovery of lands, &c. after the lapse of twenty years, subject to the exceptions common to the laws of most of the states. All actions of debt, founded on any writing, whether sealed or unsealed, and all actions of assumpsit, founded on any writing for the direct payment of money, must be brought within ten years. Actions for debt, penalties, trespass upon personal or real property, account, detinue, trover, trespass on the case, must be brought within five years. Actions upon accounts for goods, wares, &c., store account, assault and battery, and false imprisonment, must be brought within two years after the cause of action accrued. Judgments, and decrees, and sealed instruments of writing, are presumed to be satisfied after the lapse of twenty years; but the presumption may be repelled by proof of payment of part, or by a written acknowledgment of the indebtedness within that time.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

COPYRIGHT—TRANSFER OF BANK STOCK—IMPORT DUTIES.

[We have taken measures to procure accurate statements of decisions rendered from time to time in the United States Courts for this district, and we hope to be enabled to present some of them in each future number of our publication.

In cases of great interest or novelty, we shall endeavor to obtain the opinions of the judge *in extenso*: but ordinarily we shall limit ourselves to a succinct and clear statement of the questions raised in a case, and the points adjudged by the court. Except to professional readers, this will be probably all that is desirable. Others may thus learn sufficiently, for general purposes, the tenor of adjudications in those courts upon the multifarious and important subjects falling within their jurisdiction. The decisions will themselves indicate the diversity and importance of the topics acted upon by those tribunals; and we are persuaded they will be found instructive and interesting to most classes of our readers.

Independent of subjects of jurisdiction at law and in equity, common to them and to the state courts, it more particularly devolves upon the courts of the United States to discuss and determine questions arising under treaties, and the statute laws of the United States—points of maritime law, touching liens, bottomry, salvage, wages, the liabilities of ships and ship-owners, navigation and imposts—questions respecting copyrights and patents—trespasses, seizures, or torts upon the high seas—and international questions, affecting foreigners, or citizens and foreigners.]

COPYRIGHT.

United States Circuit Court.—*In Equity*: William Gould & David Banks vs. Hiram P. Hastings.—April term, 1840: before Judges Thompson and Betts.

The bill was filed in this case by the complainants, as assignees of Esak Cowen and John L. Wendell, and proprietors of nine volumes of Cowen's Reports, and seventeen volumes of Wendell's Reports.

It alleges in substance that the above volumes were composed and duly copyrighted by the reporters; that the complainants, as their assigns, have sole right or exclusive privilege of printing, reprinting, publishing, or vending the said reports; that the defendant has publicly declared his intention to publish, and is proceeding to publish, nine volumes of condensed reports, to embrace all the cases contained in the said twenty-six volumes of complainants' reports; that he has already published and prepared for sale a part of the ninth volume of his proposed condensed reports, which contains the same matter published in the sixteenth volume of Wendell's Reports, and is a violation of the said copyright; that the defendant is preparing to publish the residue of the said ninth volume, and the antecedent eight volumes, to the great injury of the complainants, and they pray an injunction, &c. An injunction was accordingly granted, to continue to the end of the succeeding term of the court, and at the same time an order was made, referring it to a master to collate the two works, and report to this court whether the defendant's publication was a copy or colorable transcript of the sixteenth volume of Wendell, (except the opinions of the judges,) or whether it was a fair abridgment thereof, or whether it was compiled by the defendant from the materials supplied by the complainants' publication. This order of reference was, by consent of parties, executed by William Kent, Esq., who made a detailed and clear report upon the matters of reference; upon filing which, and on his answer, the defendant moved to dissolve the injunction issued in the cause.

The defendant, in his answer, admits his acts and intentions as charged in the bill, but denies many facts upon which the complainants rest their title and rights, and alleges in bar various objections, spread out at length in the answer, and which may be comprised under three general heads.

First. It is asserted that the reporters are public officers, performing a duty assigned by the legislature, for which they are compensated by salary; that the publication of the reports is the essential part of their public service, and that they cannot appropriate to themselves by copyright an exclusive property therein.

Second. That these law reports cannot be made subjects of copyright, the reporters not being authors in the composition or compilation of such works, in a sense to authorize them to acquire any exclusive right or privilege to publish them.

Third. That if the copyright be valid, the defendant's publication is no infringement of it.

It is not important to the present history of the case to present a more ample statement of the pleadings or report of the master, or to notice various intermediate applications to the court, upon the one side and the other, to enlarge the time for proofs, to dismiss the bill, &c. &c.

The cause was fully and ably argued by Mr. Bidwell for the defendant, and by Messrs. Paine and O'Connor for the complainants. The court after advisement decided, that the complainants could not secure by copyright an exclusive right or privilege to publish the opinions of the judges of the Supreme Court, or members of the Court of Errors, delivered by them in writing in the cases decided in those courts respectively, and that, accordingly, no injunction would lie against the defendant in respect to that part of the publication in question.

The court further remarked, that the decision of some of the other important points in the case depended upon facts at issue between the parties, upon which the proofs were not yet fully completed; and that the master not being directed to

take proofs, his report was not definitive upon other points that might have an important bearing on the final decision, and therefore the court would defer pronouncing any opinion upon the question, whether these law reports are subjects of copyright—and if they may be so to any extent, what parts are to be regarded original matter entitled to be so protected; and also, whether the defendant's publication is to be regarded a fair abridgment or a copy or colorable transcript of the complainants' work, or whether the defendant is entitled to claim any part of his publication as an original composition or compilation,—until the cause should be brought to a hearing upon the pleadings and proofs.

The court further ruled that the complainants were not bound to resort to a suit at law and establish their right in the first instance, and that if they are entitled to the privilege of copyright, the remedy at law is not adequate to the defence and protection of such right; and that, accordingly, injunction, as an appropriate and secure remedy, will be retained until the cause is disposed of upon the merits.

TRANSFER OF BANK STOCK.

Amos H. Hubbard vs. The Bank of the United States and others.—June, 1840—*In Equity*: Judges Thompson and Betts present.

The parts presented by the pleadings and proofs are, in substance, that James Lanman, of Norwich, Connecticut, had invested funds belonging to the separate estate of his wife, in the stock of the Bank of the United States, intended to be reserved for her separate use, but for convenience of transfer and drawing dividends, the shares and scrip were taken in the name of James Lanman and his wife jointly.

That on the 1st of September, 1834, the complainant purchased of Lanman and wife one hundred and fifty shares of said stock, at Norwich, paying \$119 per share therefor, and received the necessary power of attorney and authority for having a transfer made to him on the books of the bank. Application was made the next day at the agency of the bank in New York, to have the transfer perfected; but some slight informality in the papers required their being sent back to Norwich and rectified, before the bank would act upon them, and they were not presented in due form until the 6th of September, on which day 125 shares were transferred to the complainant; but the scrip for the remaining 25 shares not being found in the agency where it was supposed by the complainant to have been deposited with the 125 shares, the bank deferred the transfer of those shares until the scrip should be produced.

It was subsequently found, on search, in possession of Lanman, at Norwich, and was immediately transmitted to New York, with intent to complete the transfer.

On the 6th of September, 1836, an attachment was sued out conformably to the laws of the state, against the property of James Lanman, as a non-resident debtor; and, at two o'clock in the afternoon of that day, notice thereof was served on the bank, and the said twenty-five shares of stock were claimed under the attachment. The trustees, when appointed, demanded the assignment of the stock to them; but the bank declined making it, because it was claimed by the complainant under his purchase; and on the presentation of the scrip, subsequent to the attachment, the bank declined making the transfer on the books to the complainant, because of the pendency of such attachment. Messrs. Goddard and Staples insisted, for the complainant, that the sale of the stock was complete, and vested the property in the complainant before the attachment issued. That if the sale was insufficient to pass the property, without being accompanied by a transfer of the shares on the books of the bank, yet that it was not subject to attachment for the debts of Lanman, having been purchased with the separate funds of the wife, and held for her use under her marriage settlement.

Mr. Bonney, for the trustees, contended that the stock was the property of James Lanman, and subject to the claims of his creditors prior to the first of September, and that the alleged sale to the complainant on that day did not

pass the property so as to prevent the attachment arresting it for the benefit of all his creditors—a transfer on the books of the bank being an indispensable requisite to the completion of a sale. That the sale was palpably a family arrangement, (the complainant being Lanman's son-in-law) with a view to rescue this fund for the use of Lanman and wife, and was therefore fraudulent, as against his creditors. The court remarked, that there was no proof to support the allegation that the purchase by the complainant was collusive or fraudulent with respect to the creditors of Lanman.

The controversy, then, was between a bona fide purchaser and the attachment creditors, and it turned exclusively upon questions of law. The rights and interests of proprietors or stockholders in banking companies pass by assignment, and no other formality is requisite to vest the full property therein, in a purchaser (2 Cowen, R. 770—11 Wendell, 627—6 Pick. R. 324—8 Pick. R. 90—9 Pick. 202—10 Pick. R. 422.) The existence of by-laws of the bank prohibiting any transfer of stock, except upon the books of the bank, affects only the corporation or individual corporators, and cannot control the rights of third parties. An assignee becomes absolute owner of the stock without observing that method of transfer, and notwithstanding any prohibitory by-law. The by-law will be allowed to operate no further as against third parties, than to protect liens of the corporation upon the stock existing previous to its sale or assignment. Although the purchaser acquires the full property of the stock by sale and assignment, yet to give him every beneficial enjoyment of it—(the right of a corporator, for instance)—it may be necessary that it should be transferred to his name at the bank, and if the bank refuses to give him that benefit of his purchase, a court of chancery will compel it to open its transfer books and register the assignment in his behalf. (1 Peters, R. 299—16 Mass. R. 101.)

These two considerations determine the case in favor of the complainant, and entitle him to the decree he prays for. And the court observed it was not therefore called upon to decide whether the stock is protected from attachment as the sole property of Mrs. Lanman; but that it saw no reason to doubt, upon the proofs, that Mrs. Lanman had a right to hold this property exempt from the debts of her husband, or that a court of chancery might, in the form of proceeding, interpose its guardianship over her interests, and preserve them from the attachment of his creditors. (5 Johns. Ch. R. 464—6 John. Ch. 25—ibid. 178—ibid. 222.) On the question of costs, the court observed that the defendants did not stand in the relation of naked trustees, seeking the direction of the court or submitting themselves to it; but were litigant parties contesting the complainant's right, and maintaining the permanent right of creditors. Whether they are personally interested in these debts would not vary the case, because they must be regarded as acting under a guaranty, or as assuming this adversary attitude at their own hazard; and it is no less meet in equity than at law, that they should bear the expenses created by a resistance to the rights of the complainant, found on examination not to be well founded.

Decreed accordingly—that the Bank of the United States transfer to the complainant the twenty-five shares of stock mentioned in the pleadings, and that the trustees of the attaching creditors pay the complainant's costs.

TARIFF—IMPORT DUTIES.

Circuit Court, United States.—Armstrong vs. Hoyt.—Judges Thompson and Betts—April, 1841.

This is an action against the collector, presenting a question as to the construction of the second section of the tariff act of 1832: by this act, "wool, unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation shall not exceed eight cents per pound, shall be imported free of duties:" if of greater value, it is subject to duty.

The invoice is relied on by both parties. If the charges and expenses at the place of exportation are added to form the value, then the wool would appear to have cost more than eight cents per pound—otherwise to have cost less: and

the question is whether these charges are to be taken as forming part of "the value at the place of exportation," in the meaning of this law. The fifteenth section of the act is referred to as explanatory of the term actual value. By that, the ad valorem rates of duty are to be computed on actual cost or actual value, and this phraseology appears—"to the actual cost, if the same shall have been actually purchased, or to the actual value, if the same shall have been procured otherwise than by purchase, at the time and place when and where purchased or otherwise procured, shall be added all charges, except insurance."

Now "the charges" are not expressly mentioned in the second section, as constituting part of the actual value: but in the fifteenth section, the actual value is treated as a thing to which the charges are to be added: as something distinct from the charges, and of which, of course, the charges are no part. The words "actual value" in each section must mean the same value. If it is exclusive of charges in the fifteenth section, so it must also be in the second section; and the charges therefore must be left out of view in determining if the actual value of the wool was eight cents per pound. Judgment, therefore, is rendered for a return of the duties.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Nestorians; or, The Lost Tribes. Containing evidence of their identity; an account of their manners, customs, and ceremonies; together with sketches of travel in ancient Assyria, Armenia, Media, and Mesopotamia, and illustrations of Scripture Prophecy.* New York: Harper and Brothers. 12mo. pp. 385. 1841.

The first edition of this interesting book was all disposed of in a few days after publication. Few works have procured a more uniform testimony in their favor. In the opinion of the most learned and judicious, the proposition has been fully sustained, that the Nestorian Christians of Persia are truly the **LOST TRIBES** of the house of Israel. But independent of the great discovery, interesting alike to the scholar and the Christian, the book possesses in itself intrinsic merits. The narrative part leads the reader through scenes of a romantic character, and over places consecrated as the cradle of the human race. We go with the traveller through a region where the footsteps of the European have not trodden, and among a people who for nearly two thousand years have maintained their independence and their individuality. We enter with him the churches built at the time or soon after the preaching of the Apostles, and worship with a primitive people in their sanctuaries, surrounded and protected by the lofty barriers of rocks. We commend this interesting volume to the readers of the Magazine. It throws new light upon the movements in Asia, and may indicate that the day of the redemption of the chosen people is near at hand.

2.—*Psychology; or, a View of the Human Soul; including Anthropology. Adapted for the use of Colleges.* By Rev. FREDERICK A. RAUCH, D. D., late President of Marshall College, Penn. 2d edition. Revised and improved. New York: M. W. Dodd. 8vo. pp. 401. 1841.

"Know thyself" was the inscription on the temple of Apollo, a precept at once the most necessary, and yet the most difficult to be obeyed. The principal object of the author in writing this book, was to render the noble "science of man" accessible to all classes of readers; for as the inscription on the temple of Apollo was not only intended for some, but for every one approaching it, so the knowledge of human nature is desirable for every one, and not for a few only. The author flatters himself that he has effected this purpose by using plain language, by following a simple course of thought, by taking all his illustrations from nature, and by comparing constantly the activities of mind with those analogous to it in nature. With the exception of a few divisions, it is believed therefore that the present work may be read with advantage by all.

- 3.—*The Progress of Democracy; illustrated in the history of Gaul and France* By ALEXANDER DUMAS. Translated by an American. New York: J. H. Langley. 12mo. pp. 376. 1841.

This work appeared in the original simply under the title of "Gaul et France;" but the translator, in presenting it to the public in English, has given it a different name, which, though not that of the author, is, nevertheless, descriptive of the work itself. Its chief value to the general reader consists not only in the vast amount of historical facts which it embodies in so small a compass, but in the democratic principles that are set forth with remarkable ability and clear-sightedness, which cannot fail to interest all who sympathize with, and have confidence in, the progress of political and social freedom. The author, in the conclusion of his work, offers various considerations on the present political condition of France, and contends that the period is not far distant when she will not be content with her existing aristocratic representation, but that the present form of government must fall, and another will be established in its stead corresponding with the wants, the interests, and the wishes of her people. How far his views are correct as to the past, and precient as to the future, the reader and time must severally determine.

- 4.—*Two Hundred Pictorial Illustrations of the Holy Bible, and views in the Holy Land, together with many remarkable objects mentioned in the Old and New Testaments; representing sacred historical events, copied from celebrated pictures, principally by old masters: the landscape scenes made from original sketches, taken on the spot, with interesting letter-press descriptions, chiefly explanatory of the engravings, and of numerous passages connected with the history, geography, natural history, and antiquities of the Sacred Scriptures; compiled from the London Pictorial Bible.* Second Series. New York: Robert Sears. 8vo. pp. 383.

The copious titlepage quoted, furnishes a very good index to the design and character of the work. The sale of the first volume, published several months since, is almost without a precedent in the history of the book trade, having rapidly passed through nine or ten editions, so that in less than a twelvemonth more than sixteen thousand copies were sold. The contents of the volume are mainly derived from the London Pictorial Bible, a work in high repute with all biblical students. The second volume is in every respect an improvement on the first. Through the spirited efforts of the publisher, the highest encomiums have been bestowed upon the work; and on the whole, we consider it valuable, as serving to illustrate the sacred text, and confirm the faith of the Christian in the truth of the volume that reveals to him the glorious hope of immortality.

- 5.—*Family Secrets; or Hints to those who would make home happy.* By Mrs. Ellis, author of the "Women of England," "Poetry of Life," &c. New York: D. Appleton.

This is the first of a series of tales, with the above general title. The volume before is designed to portray the dangers of dining out. It is in harmony with the temperance movement of the day, and Mrs. Ellis has not only described with fidelity some of the various forms which intemperance assumes, but would lead the attention of the reader to its only remedy; as well as to enforce the truth, that for all moral evils there is no certain cure but in the exercise of Christian principles.

- 6.—*Disce Mori. Learn to Die.* By CHRISTOPHER SUTTON, D. D. Late Prebend of Westminster. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 310. 1841. The volume before us is the fifth of the "Devotional Library," in course of publication by the Appletons. They are reprints of old English writers, lately reproduced at Oxford. Each volume is printed on the finest paper, neatly bound, and uniform in size. To the serious and devout Christian, these publications must prove an acceptable offering, particularly to those who admire the religion and literature of the English Episcopal Church.

7.—*Historical Sketches of the Old Painters.* By the author of the "Three Experiments of Living." A new edition, enlarged. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co. 12mo. pp. 350. 1841.

Were there any thing ephemeral or trashy about this, it would be late in the day to notice it. But this work is really a permanent contribution to our most valuable literature, in a department now just rising into notice among us. To those who are acquainted with the larger works on the subject, by Vasari Lanzi and others, these graceful dialogues could afford no instruction, though they might much pleasure. But to the mass of even the best informed readers, these sketches will bring vividly before them most interesting portraits of men, now nearly unknown, yet rapidly rising into transatlantic favor and fame. The book is truly a gem. The exhibitions of character and sentiment which fill its pages, enrich the heart as well as refine the taste. Its basis is historical fact; but Mrs. Lee's fine imagination has given a richness to the picture that must always charm, particularly the young.

8.—*The Poetical Works of Howitt, Milman, and Keats: complete in one volume.* Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co. 8vo. pp. 520. 1840.

In selecting from among the recent poets of Great Britain, two whose works had not been hitherto presented collectively to the American reader, to be published with the lamented Keats, the editor gave his preference to those which he conceived would be most acceptable to the public—most popular; and in selecting Mary Howitt and Henry Hart Milman, he has, in our opinion, obeyed the dictates of a correct judgment, as to their merits, compared with those of their contemporaries. Each has a peculiar beauty, such as may render them counterparts to each other, and not inappropriately are they grouped opposite to each other in this volume. No pains we are assured have been spared to render the respective collections complete and accurate. The volume is neatly printed, and done up in a substantial binding for private or public libraries.

9.—*A Summer Journey in the West.* By Mrs. STEELE, authoress of *Heroines of Sacred History.* New York: John S. Taylor. 12mo. 1841.

This unassuming volume embraces a sketch of all that passed before the observation of the author, during a summer tour of four thousand miles, through the great lakes, the prairies of Illinois, the rivers Illinois, Mississippi, and Ohio, and over the Allegany mountains to New York. Mrs. S. has adopted the epistolary form, and conveys to the reader a considerable fund of amusement and instruction in an easy and agreeable style. She has collected, from authentic sources, since her determination "to print," many facts regarding the western states, as to distances, prices, and conveyances, throughout her route, which must render the book useful to future tourists and emigrants. We have passed over a portion of the route occupied by the writer, and can, therefore, as far as our observation extends, bear testimony to the general accuracy of her descriptions.

10.—*Old Humphrey's Addresses.* By the author of *Old Humphrey's Observations.* New York: Robert Carter. 12mo. pp. 252. 1841.

These "Addresses" embrace a great variety of subjects, social, moral, and religious, and all of them are deeply imbued with the Christian sentiment. The every-day events of life furnish the material for the writer, from which to educe a moral or a maxim. They are written in a plain, unaffected, sententious style, and are evidently designed to engage the attention of the miscellaneous reader, who has little time and less inclination for the more elaborated treatise or discourse. It is, on the whole, a very readable book, and one that must prove useful in calling forth the reflective faculties.

- 11.—*Incidents of Travel in Central America, &c.* By JOHN L. STEPHENS. 2 vols. 8vo. Harper and Brothers. 1841.

The note of preparation which has gone before the publication of these volumes, and the glimpses of insight into their character afforded by the lectures of Mr. Catherwood, have created great expectations in the public mind; but we suspect that the public will be astonished at finding how slight is the approach made by the expectation to the fulfilment. An idea has gone abroad, at least to some extent, that Mr. Stephens's volumes were to be filled with nothing but descriptions and drawings of Palenque and its wonderful ruins; Palenque, by the way, being only one, and that not the most wonderful, of six ruined cities visited and explored by Mr. Stephens. But these descriptions and drawings, although constituting a rich portion of the curious and interesting contents, form only a part, and that by no means the major part of the extraordinary matters with which the volumes are freighted. There are many "incidents of travel" besides. Mr. Stephens went to Central America at an exciting and eventful time; he was there during the progress and at the close of the civil war, in which Morazan and Carrera were the rival leaders; he came in contact with both, by reason of the official character in which he visited the country, and but for which he might never have returned to give the history of his journeyings; certainly but for that official character he could not have accomplished them to any thing like the extent in which they were performed. As it was, official character and all, he found himself more than once involved in dilemmas and dangers which it is more pleasant to read of than to share. He travelled some thousands of miles—fell in with all sorts of curious people—had adventures many, of all sorts and qualities, serious, ludicrous, and odd—observed strange manners and customs—and in short, gathered up abundant material for two of the richest volumes that traveller could make, even without reference to the ruins. But with these, and the wonderfully curious and beautiful drawings of them made by Mr. Catherwood, the volumes are not only rich, but unrivalled—we may say unequalled, *longo intervallo*, by any travels we ever read. Of these drawings there are nearly a hundred, admirably engraved, on steel most of them, by the most skilful artists we have; representing the marvellously sculptured idols, altars, bas-reliefs, hieroglyphics, &c., of the unknown people who once inhabited the great cities of Central America, and whose origin and history are now lost—perhaps forever. A remarkable race they must have been; but who, or what, or whence? We trust that the publication of Mr. Stephens's most admirable work will give an impulse to inquiry which may end in obtaining an answer to these questions.

- 12.—*The Tyrolese Minstrels, or Romance of Every-day Life.* By a LADY. Boston: Geo. W. Light. 18mo. pp. 200.

The writer of this narrative has happily succeeded in delineating character with great individuality, without any of those offensive exhibitions of personal feeling which too often excite the displeasure of the community. The conversational style, in which most of the narrative is cast, is well sustained and lively. There are occasional gleams of wit and humor, and poetic feeling, that lead one to desire a further acquaintance with the authoress. The lithograph of the "Fair Tyrolese," which fronts the title, is pronounced by many a correct likeness of the favorite singer, on whose history rumor says the tale is founded.

- 13.—*The Merchant's Widow, and other Tales.* By MRS. CAROLINE M. SAWYER. New York: P. Price. 18mo. pp. 192. 1841.

In these excellent tales the most fastidious will detect nothing that militates against the interests of morality or religion. They are written in a simple, unostentatious style, and convey lessons of instruction well calculated to strengthen the social virtues, and render the domestic fireside the abode of purity and peace.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS ESTABLISHED BY THE BALTIMORE BOARD OF TRADE.

COMMISSIONS.

The following rates to be charged, if no agreement to the contrary exists:—

	Dom.	For.
On sales of merchandise,.....per cent.	2½	5
“ stocks,	½	1
Bills of exchange, if endorsed,	2½	2½
do. do. net endorsed,.....	½	½
Purchases of merchandise, in funds,.....	2½	2½
do. do. in advance,	2½	5
Purchases of stocks and bills of exchange,.....	½	1
Accepting or endorsing, without funds,.....	2½	2½
Collecting freights,.....	2½	2½
Procuring freights,.....	2½	2½
Disbursements of vessels,.....	2½	2½
do. do. without funds,.....	2½	5
Effecting insurance, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent,.....	½	½
do. do. if the premium is above 10 per cent on the amount of premium,	5	5
Adjusting and collecting losses insured, if not disputed, or litigated,.....	1½	2½
do. delayed or litigated accounts,.....	2½	5
Entering and forwarding goods, on the amount of duties and charges,.....	2½	2½
Advancing money on letters of credit, or otherwise,.....	2½	2½

On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commission to be charged on the amount of advances, or responsibilities incurred; and half commission on the residue of the value.

The above commissions are exclusive of guarantee for sales on credit, auction duty and commissions, storage, brokerage, and every other expense actually incurred.

FREIGHT AND FREIGHTING.

If a vessel is freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made respecting the proportions at which each article shall be computed, the following shall be the standard of computation, and either parcel deemed equal to a ton, viz:—

2,240 lbs.	pig and bar iron, lead, copper, logwood, fustic, and other heavy dyewoods.
2,000	“ Nicaragua and Brazilletto wood.
2,240	“ nett, sugar and rice, in casks.
1,830	“ “ coffee, in bags.
1,600	“ “ do. in casks.
1,300	“ “ cocoa, in bags or bulk.
1,120	“ “ do. in casks.
1,110	“ “ pimento, in bags.
952	“ “ do. in casks.
800	“ “ ship bread, in bags.
700	“ “ do. do. in casks.
1,120	“ “ dried hides.
900	“ “ weight, green teas, and China raw silk.
1,120	“ “ bohea, and other black tea.
1,500	“ “ Virginia tobacco, in hogsheads.
1,300	“ “ Kentucky do. in do.
1,000	“ “ Maryland do. in do.
8 bbls.	flour, of 196 lbs. nett.
6	“ beef, pork, and tallow.
7	“ naval stores and pickled fish.
200 gall.	wine measure, estimating the full contents of the cask of oil, wine, brandy, &c
22 bush.	grain, peas, beans, &c., in casks.
40	“ do. do. do. in bulk.
40	“ Liverpool blown salt, in bulk.
34	“ do. ground salt.
31	“ St. Ubes, Cape de Verda, &c., in bulk.

30 bush. West India salt, in bulk.

30 " sea coal, in bulk.

40 cubic feet of plank, boards, timber, bale goods, packages, and boxes.

In estimating the contents in cubic feet, of various packages and goods, the following shall be the standard:—

A flour barrel,.....	5 feet.
A tierce of rice,.....	15 "
A hogshead of flaxseed,.....	12 "
A hogshead of Virginia tobacco,.....	45 "
A hogshead of Kentucky, Georgia, and Carolina do.	40 "
A hogshead of Maryland and Ohio do.....	35 "
5 bushels of grain in bulk,.....	5 "

In computing boxes of candles and soap, kegs of butter and lard, hams and bacon, and generally all similar articles, 200 lbs. nett weight shall be considered equal to a barrel of 5 cubic feet.

All goods brought to this port on freight, must be delivered on a wharf, at the expense of the vessel bringing the same. A delivery, after due notice, on any good wharf at Fell's Point, during business hours, is a delivery in the city and port of Baltimore. Hides and articles prohibited to be landed in the city at certain periods, may be landed where the public authorities may direct.

In all cases when vessels are obliged (by the quarantine regulations, or city authorities,) to discharge their cargo in the stream, the expense of delivering the same *east* of Jones' Falls, will be borne by the carrier only. But when requested by the consignee to be delivered *west* of Jones' Falls, then the expense shall be equally borne by the carrier and consignee, (each one half.)

If a vessel is chartered for a voyage out and home, each shipper shall be entitled to his fair proportion of the whole homeward freight, pro rata, of the bulk or space occupied by each shipper on the outward voyage.

In all cases where a vessel is chartered or freighted for a voyage out and home, the freighter, or charterer, is bound to furnish sufficient cargo, to enable said vessel to return safely home, and the same from port to port, where the charter provides for more than one port. Provided, no agreement to the contrary is made by the parties.

STORAGE.		Per month.
Hhds. of sugar, tobacco, molasses, rum, oil, and pipes of wine, brandy, and gin,		25 cents.
Hogsheads of coffee, copperas, codfish, and tallow,.....		20 "
Tierces of sugar, rum, molasses, and half pipes,.....		16 "
" rice, coffee, flaxseed, alum, &c.....		12½ "
Barrels of rum, whiskey, sugar, beef, pork, fish, cheese, oil, and ¼ casks wine,		6 "
" flour, coffee, and other dry articles,.....		3 "
Boxes of Cuba sugar,.....		8 "
" fish, wine, oil, lemons, and oranges,		3 "
" soap, candles, cheese, tin, raisins, and drums of figs,.....		1 "
Bags of coffee, cocoa, pepper, and pimento,.....		2 "
Bales of cotton and hempen yarn, about 300 lbs.....		12½ "
" India piece, and other similar goods,.....		10 "
Indigo, in ceroons, 4 cents; in cases,.....		10 "
Tea, in chests, 3 cents; half do., 2 cents; boxes,		1 "
Kegs of butter, lard, tobacco, nails, raisins,.....		3 "
Hides, dried,.....		1 "
Hemp, per ton,.....		50 "
Cordage, per do.....		30 "
Iron and lead, per do.....		20 "
Dyewood, per do.....		25 "
Hampers of bottles, &c.....		10 "
Crates of earthenware,.....		20 "
Grain, per bushel,.....		½ "
Salt, per bushel,.....		¼ "

The owners of goods to be at the expense of putting them in store, and delivering them. All goods stored to be subject to one month's storage, if in store ten days. If less than ten days, to half a month's storage. The risk of loss by fire, robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, is in all cases to be borne by the owner of the goods; provided, usual care be taken for the security of the property.

WEIGHTS AND TARES.

Sugar, copperas, alum, brimstone, shot, lead, iron, steel, hemp, dyewoods, and all other articles heretofore sold by the cwt. of 112 lbs., or ton of 2,240 lbs., shall in future be sold by the decimal hundred of 100 pounds, or ton of 2000 pounds.

Tares shall be allowed as follows:—

Sugar, in hhds. or tierces, 12 per cent; in Cuba boxes, 15 per cent; in flour bbls. 22 lbs. each; do. in linen bags, 3 per cent; and in all other packages the actual tare.

Coffee, in linen, single gunny, and grass bags, 2 per cent; in flour bbls. 20 lbs. each; in all other packages the actual tare.

Cocoa, in bags, 2 per cent.

Pepper, in linen or single gunny bags, 2 per cent; in other packages the actual tare.

Pimento, in linen or single gunny bags, 3 per cent; in other packages the actual tare.

Rice, in tierces and half tierces, 10 per cent.

Copperas, 10 per cent, in hogsheads.

Teas, green, whole chests, 20 lbs.; half do., the Canton tare; do. black do. do. 22 lbs.; do. three quarter chests, 18 lbs.; other packages the actual tare.

Cassia, in mats, 9 per cent; boxes, and other packages, the actual tare.

Indigo, in ceroon, in single hides, 11 per cent; in all other cases the actual tare.

Alum, brimstone, ginger, nutmegs, mace, cloves, almonds, figs, cheese, soap, candles, chocolate, currants, prunes, starch, and all other articles not before mentioned, the actual tare.

No charge shall be made for casks, barrels, boxes, or other packages whatever.

Drafts, as follows:—

On all weights, even beam, $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent to be allowed of draft.

TARIFF OF THE PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

The following schedule, showing the amount of duties to be imposed on foreign articles, passed the late session of the legislature, and continues in force for one year from the 1st of April, 1841.

SCHEDULE OF ARTICLES SUBJECT TO DUTY, AND ARTICLES EXEMPTED FROM DUTY.

	£	s.	d.
SPIRITS, <i>videlicet</i> —brandy, per gallon,.....	0	2	3
Rum or spirits, per gallon,.....	0	1	6
And further, for and upon all rum or spirits stronger than of the proof of 26 by the bubble, for every bubble below 26, an additional, per gallon,.....	0	0	1
Being of foreign production, a further and additional, per gallon,.....	0	0	6
Geneva, gin, hollands, or cordials, per gallon,.....	0	1	6
Whiskey, per gallon,.....	0	2	0
Shrub, sante, lime juice, per gallon,.....	0	0	6
WINES, <i>videlicet</i> —hock, constantia, malmsey, or tokay, per gallon,.....	0	3	1
Champagne, burgundy, or hermitage, per gallon,.....	0	2	10
Claret, called lafitte, latour, margeaux, or hautbrian, per gallon,.....	0	2	7
Madeira and port, per gallon,.....	0	2	4
Sherry wine, of which the first cost is £20 or upwards per pipe, per gallon,.....	0	2	1
Other claret wines, barsac, sauterne, vin de grave, moselle, and other French wines, and lisbon and German wines, per gallon,.....	0	1	10
All other sherry wines, teneriffe, marcela, Sicilian, malaga, fayal, and all other wines, per gallon,.....	0	1	3
All wines the product of the Cape of Good Hope, (except constantia,) per gallon,.....	0	1	3
SUGAR, <i>videlicet</i> —Muscovado or brown, per cwt.....	0	2	6
And on foreign sugar, an additional, per cwt.....	0	1	3
Loaf, lump, or refined, per pound,.....	0	0	1

	£	s.	d.
Coffee, per pound,.....	0	0	1
Dried Fruits, per cwt.....	0	5	0
Molasses, per gallon,.....	0	0	1
Being of a foreign production, an additional, per gallon,.....	0	0	1
Tobacco, <i>videlicet</i> —manufactured, (except snuff and cigars,) per pound,....	0	0	1
Snuff and cigars, for every £100 of the true and real value thereof,.....	10	0	0
Cattle, for and upon every foreign horse,	5	0	0
For and upon every foreign ox,.....	1	5	0
For and upon all other foreign horned cattle,.....	1	5	0
For and upon all foreign dead fresh meats, per pound,.....	0	0	1

For and upon the following manufactured articles, when not imported from the United Kingdom, *videlicet* :—chairs, or prepared parts of or for chairs, clocks, clock cases, clock movements or machinery, watches, household furniture, pictures, mirrors, looking-glasses—for every £100 of the true and real value thereof, £25.

And for and upon all soap and candles, India-rubber shoes, and all other foreign articles, manufactured or not manufactured, not otherwise charged with duty, nor hereinafter declared to be free of duty—for every £100 of the true and real value thereof, £10.

Silk, and for all manufactures of which silk shall form a component part—for every £100 of the true and real value thereof, £5.

And for and upon all articles the manufacture of the United Kingdom, imported or brought into this province, whether by sea or inland carriage or navigation, or which may be saved from any wrecked or stranded ship or vessel, or not otherwise charged with duty, nor hereinafter declared to be free of duty; also all manufactures of cotton of the British East India possessions, pepper, and all other descriptions of spices, for every £100 of the true and real value thereof, £2 10s.

Colonial leather, and malt liquor—for every £100 of the true and real value thereof, £5.

For and upon all foreign wheat flour imported from Nova Scotia—for each and every barrel of one hundred and ninety-six pounds, 5s. 10d.

EXCEPTIONS.

To all foreign articles, manufactured or not manufactured, *videlicet* :—agricultural implements (axes excepted,) barilla ashes, beeswax, bristles, books (printed) and pamphlets, beans, bricks, bread, cotton wool, cows, cordage, canvas, dyewoods, felt, flour and meal of all kinds (buckwheat flour excepted,) fresh and green fruits of all kinds, grass seed and all other kinds of seeds and plants, grain of all kinds, ground gypsum, hay, hides, horsehair, horns, hemp, hops, indigo, iron, India-rubber, lumber of all kinds (cedar, pine, spruce, and hemlock shingles excepted,) leaf tobacco, lignum-vitæ, looking-glass plates, and picture and plate glass, mahogany logs, boards and veneers, meats dried and salted, mill saws, palm oil, pitch, peas, pot ashes, rosin, rice, salt, tar, turpentine, tallow, vinegar—duty free.

To all articles the manufacture of the United Kingdom, *videlicet* :—Agricultural implements, anchors, barley, pot or pearl, beef, bacon, books (printed) and pamphlets, bread, bunting, bricks and tiles, coals, copper, bolt and sheet, copper spikes and nails, canvas, coal tar, cordage, duck, felt, patent fishing nets, hooks, lines and twines, flour and meal of all kinds, globes, iron, bolt, bar, pig or sheet, iron block bushes, lead, bar and sheet, mineral salt, and salt of all kinds, malt, machinery for mills and steamboats, mathematical and musical instruments of all kinds, and philosophical and chemical apparatus, hydraulic engines, maps, oakum, pork, printing paper, steel, spikes and sheathing nails, ship tackle and apparel, sheathing paper, tin in sheets and blocks, zinc—duty free.

TEXAS CUSTOMHOUSE REGULATIONS.

ALDEN A. M. JACKSON, collector at Galveston, has addressed the following note to John H. Brower, Esq., Consul of the Republic of Texas at New York. We publish it for the information of shippers and others engaged in the trade with Texas. It is dated Galveston, May 18, 1841.

"For the information and government of persons shipping merchandise to this port, you will please to make known that all invoices presented for entry at this customhouse are required to be made in duplicate, giving the marks and numbers of the several packages, with the contents and value of each, and accompanied with the original invoice of purchase or consignment; also, that the same rules and regulations are observed on the importation of merchandise into this republic, as are now in force and observed in the importation of merchandise into the United States."

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

CHANGES IN THE SEA MARKS BEFORE DRAGO.

WULFF, Commander, and Chief Pilot for the District of Zealand, publishes over his signature, agreeably to his majesty's resolution of the 23d of July, 1840, the following changes which have recently taken place with regard to the sea marks and their location in the passage before Drago, and in the outer road of Copenhagen, from the time they shall be put out in the year 1841. These regulations are dated "Copenhagen, November 3, 1840."

1. The Drago Buoy will retain its place, but the float and staff near it will be removed and placed in three fathoms water, on the western extremity of Holmetungen, and the float and staff near the South Ryse be placed in three fathoms water, due east of this ground. Both these floats and staffs will remain out the whole year.

2. Large top-floats, with brooms on staffs from nine to ten feet long, will be placed before the southeast hook of North Ryse Ground, in three fathoms water, the northwest edge of Littleground in from four to five fathoms, the northwest edge of Broadground in from four to five fathoms, the east side of the Ravenschicks from three to four fathoms, about the stone called Rasmus Muller.

The float and staff by the wreck on the Middleground will exchange place with the buoy now situated before the old Probestone, which will be removed to the wreck on the Middleground, and be supplied with a broom on a staff.

3. The top-floats and staffs on the old Probestone, the North Ryse, the Ravenschicks, the South Ryse, and the Drago Sandshoaltong, will each be provided with a broom tied upwards on a black staff; while, on the contrary, the floats and staffs on the wreck of the frigate Cronenberg, the Middleground, the Holmetong, and the Littleground, will each be provided with a broom tied downwards on a white staff.

The float and staff on Broadground will, for the purpose of being distinguished from the one on Littleground, be provided with two brooms, the upper one tied upwards and the lower one tied downwards, on a staff painted alternately white and black by the foot measure.

4. The North Buoy of the Middleground will be removed from its place before the wreck of the line-of-battle ship Indfodretten, back on the northern extent of said ground in twenty-three feet water, and another mark, consisting of a small barrel, or buoy, painted green, placed in lieu of it on the wreck.

The bottom of the various buoys will be marked with the following number, viz:— Drago Buoy with I., Kastup Buoy with II., South Buoy with III., Middle Buoy with IV., North Buoy with V., Stubbe Buoy with VI., and the Buoy on the Crown with VII.

The land mark on Norderhoi (a rising ground) will be provided with a piece of board, one fathom square, painted white, and placed upon the mark immediately underneath the Top Buoy, and so as to face with its square surface towards the Dutchman's Deep (Hollenderdybet.)

5. The sea marks will, in general, be put out and taken in at the same time or simultaneously with the floating light in the passage before Drago; not, however, unless it can be done with perfect safety, or without risk of their being lost or displaced by floating ice.

The floats and staffs on the Sandshoaltong, the South Rysse, and the Holmetong, will remain out the whole year. On the site occupied by the Drago Sandshoal Buoy, will be placed on its removal in the autumn, a float and staff of the same description with the rest placed on Westvallen.

SAILING DIRECTIONS FOR PORT LINCOLN.

The following sailing directions for Port Lincoln, were officially laid before the government, and published in the South Australian Register, by Thomas Sipson, harbor-master. They will be found useful to mariners bound to Port Lincoln, or Port Adelaide.

In Flinder's chart there is a rock marked between William's and Smith's islands, said to be breaking at times. The harbor-master (Sipson) had a most favorable opportunity, and took every pains to discover it, but saw nothing of the kind. The master of a French whaler, lying in Memory Cove, who was fishing there the last season, said he had been through in that direction, and did not believe there was any rock between the above-mentioned islands.

North by west, one mile and a half from the north end of Thistle Island, is a large flat rock, that may be seen two or three miles from a ship's deck; and north three miles, (where there is a rock marked in the chart,) is a reef with six feet of water on it at half tide, and does not show above water. It is therefore necessary to be very cautious, and not take the rock that is seen above water for the one on the chart, as passing that at what would be considered a safe distance, would lead a ship on the reef.

Mr. Sipson passed through the ripple marked by Flinders, between Little and Hopkins islands, where it is supposed he lost his boat's crew. Small vessels must avoid going through it. In bad weather the sea must be tremendous; it is occasioned by the tide and the sudden change of soundings, (from eighteen to twelve, ten, and nine fathoms,) but quite clear otherwise.

About three miles from the entrance of Thorny Passage is Memory Cove, where six or seven ships of the largest size may lie sheltered. The water is seven fathoms within a few yards of the head of the cove.

There is also an extensive fine bay between Taylor's Island and the shore, where any number of ships may anchor; indeed, there is sheltered anchorage anywhere, if required, from Taylor's Island to Cape Dorrington, at a fair distance from the shore.

Ships coming from the westward should run to the lat. 35 deg. 35 min., until they make Kangaroo Island. If bound for Port Lincoln, and going through Thorny Passage, shape their course for William's Island, leaving Neptune's Island a berth, which may be seen four or five leagues; leaving William's Island on the starboard hand, proceed on to the east point, and enter the passage between it and Smith's Island; making the fair way up, by keeping the shore aboard, which is steep close to, leaving all the islands on the starboard hand, except Taylor's Island, which will make a fair course by leaving it on the larboard hand. When to the northward of Taylor's Island, proceed along shore for Cape Dorrington. Off the cape is a small island with a very good channel (though narrow) between it and the cape, with five fathoms. In going through it, borrow towards the island.

In proceeding to Boston Bay, the south end of Boston Island may be rounded pretty close; but in going through the north passage, give the north point a berth of half a mile, as the water shoals off it in a northeast direction.

All around Boston Bay the soundings are good and clear; ships leaving Cape Dorrington, and bound to the westward, will find a southeast course carry them well between the shoals until they see the wedge, which they had better leave on the larboard hand, and give it a good berth, as the peaked rocks run some distance off.

In running up Investigator's Strait, make Point Marsden and the high land about Cape Jarvis, and keep it aboard, which will insure a berth from Troubridge Shoal; as it is impossible to say, having Blackstair's Passage open, what may be the influence of the tide, proceed up the gulf in ten and eleven fathoms. Holdfast Bay is due west of Mount Lofty; near the beach is a flag-staff, rigged as the mast of a ship, this staff bearing east or opposite to it, in five fathoms, or two miles and a half from the beach, is the best anchorage for ships.

Ships bound for the port must run twelve miles higher up, taking care not to come within five fathoms, as the water shoals some distance off above Holdfast Bay. The pilot station is between the bay and the bar, where there is a staff with a flag on it. When opposite this, will be seen a large beacon buoy, with a ball on it, pointing the fair way to the passage over the bar.

If it should be dark, or any other circumstance prevent the pilot getting on board, they may anchor, but not in less than five fathoms, which will be about two miles and a half from the beach. When at anchor in any part of the gulf, it is highly necessary to give a great length of chain in good time, and if the gale comes on, give all the chain possible, and keep from letting go the second anchor, which confines the ship in a ground swell, and makes her strain. Ships not drawing more than fourteen feet may then proceed to the pilot station.

MADELINE AND CHARLOTTE ROCK, OFF BONA VISTA.

A letter has been received in New York, by Charles King, Esq., the editor of the *American*, from the United States Consul at Cape de Verd islands, dated St. Jago, May 4, 1841, showing the existence of a rock among the Cape de Verd islands, which has never been laid down in the charts. On the 18th of April, the British ship *Charlotte*, of Alloa, (Scotland,) Capt. Forester, struck on a rock in latitude 16 deg. 17 min. N., longitude 22 deg. 21 min. W., heeled over in about ten minutes, filled, and sunk. The rock is 300 feet in length, under water, in the shape of a crescent, opens to the northward, and the sea breaks only at particular times of tide. The rock bears from the outer end of Hartwell reef, off the island of Bonavista, N. E. by E., distance 22½ miles per compass, by Vidal & Mudge's chart, Leton's survey. It is in the direct route for all vessels bound to New Holland or India. Vessels are advised to sight Isle of Sal, run down close to it either on the E. or W. side, and pass to the westward of Bonavista, and Leton's rock; by doing so they clear this rock, (which has been called Madeline and Charlotte Rock,) and the reefs on the eastern side of Bonavista.

LIGHTHOUSE AT GIBRALTAR.

Under date, Trinity House, London, April 6, 1841, J. Herbert, secretary, has furnished the Department of State, at Washington, with the following notice to mariners:—

“The lighthouse which, for some time past, has been in the course of erection at Gibraltar, being now nearly completed, notice is hereby given, that the light therein will be exhibited for the first time on the evening of the 1st August next, and thenceforth continue every night, from sunset to sunrise. Mariners are to observe that this lighthouse is situate upon Europa Point, and that a powerful fixed light will be exhibited therein, and will burn at an elevation of 150 feet, or thereabouts, above the level of the sea.”

LIGHTHOUSE AT HOBSON'S BAY, PORT PHILIP.

The following notice to mariners has been transmitted to Lloyd's by the harbor-master at Melbourne, Port Philip:—

"After the 1st of August, 1840, a plain stationary light will be shown from sunset to sunrise, from a lighthouse erected on the extremity of Gillibrand's Point, Williamstown, Hobson's Bay, visible five leagues in clear weather from any safe position to the southward. The bearings by compass are as follow:—From the north end of the western channel the anchorage at Williamstown bears N. 14 deg. E. From the north end of Symond's Channel, the anchorage at Williamstown bears N. 60 deg. E. From the north end of the pinnace channel the anchorage at Williamstown bears N. 5 deg. E. From the north end of the south channel the anchorage at Williamstown bears N. 4 deg. W. The courses indicated will give vessels a fair berth from the shoal off Gillibrand's Point. Care must be taken after bringing the lighthouse to bear N. 22 deg. E. to N. 7 deg. E. $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile. After rounding the light, and bringing it to bear about S. 14 deg. W. 1 min., the anchor may be dropped in four fathoms water, in good holding ground of stiff clay and mud.

"N. B.—The south channel is unnavigable, its north end being filled up, having but $2\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms of water at half flood, and extremely narrow.

"Harbor-master's office, Port Philip, June 26, 1840."

WESTERLY ENTRANCE OF THE RIVER WESER.

The following translation of a notice to mariners has been transmitted to the Department of State, by the United States Consul at Bremen. It is dated at Oldenburg, December 24th, 1840, and signed by the Grand Ducal Oldenburg Government of the Duchy of Oldenburg:—

"On the island of Wangeroog, at the westerly entrance of the river Weser, the state of the navigation of said river in regard to ice will be signalized to mariners as correctly as the same can be ascertained there, in the following manner.

1. A ball of about $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter, affixed to a pole or staff projecting about 25 feet out of the west side of the church steeple of Wangeroog, and about 125 feet above the surface of the sea, signifies that floating ice is in the Weser, and that great precaution must be taken on entering the same, but, with a fair wind and other favorable circumstances, it is practicable to reach Bremerhaven or Fedderwarden; namely, the former with a fresh breeze from east to northeast, and Fedderwarden with the like wind from the northwest to west southwest.

2. Two balls hanging perpendicularly under each other at a distance of 6 feet, signify that a large quantity of floating ice is in the Weser, that the light vessels have left their stations, Bremerhaven cannot be reached, and therefore the entering of the Weser ought not to be attempted.

Said signals can best be seen from on board of a vessel when bearing south southeast to southwest by south, by compass.

LIGHT ON CARYSFORDS REEF.

It is stated on good authority that the light on Carysfords Reef, on the eastern coast of Florida, is not correctly laid down on all of the charts, some of them placing it eighteen miles out of the way. Mr. Bacon, the American consul at the port of Nassau, New Providence, has been furnished by Commander Barrett, of her Britannic majesty's surveying-ship *Thunder*, with a statement of the exact position of this light, as follows, viz:—latitude 25 deg. 12 min. north; longitude 80 deg. 16 min. 20 sec. west.

Owing to this error in the existing charts, one of the Philadelphia packets, while lately passing the reef, was nearly lost.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE.

LIVE STOCK OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

1. A Table, showing the number of horses and mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, and estimated value of poultry of all kinds, in each county of the state, as ascertained by the census of 1840.

COUNTIES.	Horses and Mules.	Neat Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Poultry of all kinds; est. value.
Albany,	9,937	25,780	57,491	49,068	\$25,650
Allegany,	9,378	46,174	131,864	29,993	14,160
Broome,	4,110	23,546	50,669	12,880	9,875
Cattaraugus,	6,099	36,226	66,525	22,533	10,368
Cayuga,	13,276	45,516	188,232	63,153	69,917
Chautauque,	11,306	93,515	136,315	42,225	29,125
Chemung,	4,667	21,206	37,975	18,201	17,403
Chenango,	8,329	65,322	198,046	27,310	9,749
Clinton,	5,723	21,013	55,555	17,795	12,306
Columbia,	9,870	32,818	121,053	54,911	29,606
Cortland,	5,734	33,759	98,760	19,043	12,798
Delaware,	8,073	56,982	119,843	27,758	13,812
Dutchess,	10,120	44,247	215,950	65,777	42,758
Erie,	10,848	29,734	81,342	37,018	15,825
Essex,	5,224	22,017	79,835	14,658	9,430
Franklin,	3,373	17,802	38,824	12,213	7,254
Fulton,	4,335	19,982	32,525	14,042	8,052
Genesee,	17,042	55,598	154,393	48,792	24,685
Greene,	5,528	22,385	37,906	19,337	13,439
Hamilton,	322	2,056	3,263	1,034	865
Herkimer,	9,484	55,437	80,182	33,957	18,915
Jefferson,	17,319	77,930	163,669	59,352	22,781
Kings,	3,019	5,948	48	8,360	7,864
Lewis,	3,931	31,130	36,665	18,076	5,293
Livingston,	10,859	29,849	163,395	37,856	13,234
Madison,	9,388	42,191	186,616	30,657	16,584
Monroe,	16,871	35,335	133,060	59,399	26,758
Montgomery,	9,948	26,806	36,588	29,108	15,155
New York,	7,797	3,395	282	13,642	4,220
Niagara,	5,324	20,544	38,919	28,340	12,417
Oneida,	16,455	92,669	177,070	66,543	37,609
Onondaga,	15,082	127,020	709,650	61,733	21,305
Ontario,	11,928	104,300	126,190	45,837	20,277
Orange,	9,245	54,799	50,219	47,084	24,536
Orleans,	6,639	18,123	69,563	31,933	21,082
Oswego,	9,688	35,369	63,842	39,239	17,576
Otsego,	12,332	65,035	223,009	45,647	25,781
Putnam,	1,962	14,971	14,945	12,868	12,172
Queens,	6,517	14,181	26,477	21,618	62,186
Rensselaer,	9,493	32,184	134,864	27,918	30,315
Richmond,	912	2,517	136	3,180	8,001
Rockland,	2,658	6,695	17,392	11,511	49,392
Saratoga,	10,394	40,809	96,656	51,601	34,121
Schoenectady,	3,949	10,808	18,094	13,063	10,951
Schoharie,	8,907	37,633	71,258	31,865	16,588
Seneca,	10,913	21,281	43,824	25,980	101,880
St. Lawrence,	11,088	61,458	125,898	41,889	12,552
Steuben,	10,412	30,351	136,933	33,287	13,028
Suffolk,	5,473	22,236	46,751	20,534	40,191

LIVE STOCK OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	Horses and Mules.	Neat Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Poultry of all kinds; est. value.
Sullivan,.....	2,514	18,179	19,524	9,860	24,550
Tioga,.....	4,120	21,576	43,220	14,987	9,279
Tompkins,.....	7,572	28,908	86,525	23,772	10,526
Ulster,.....	9,521	38,459	50,630	46,328	66,495
Warren,.....	2,528	9,826	22,875	8,153	7,129
Washington,.....	8,818	39,159	245,999	27,668	25,178
Wayne,.....	11,242	33,298	100,986	44,130	1,072,754
Westchester,.....	6,385	26,131	20,143	155,287	56,646
Yates,.....	12,134	150,220	103,752	36,950	20,430
TOTAL,.....	476,115	2,202,438	5,381,225	1,916,953	\$2,373,029

CEREAL GRAINS PRODUCED IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

2. A Table, showing the number of bushels of wheat, barley, oats, rye, buckwheat, and Indian corn, produced in the state of New York, as ascertained by the census of 1840; from official documents.

COUNTIES.	Bushels of Wheat.	Bushels of Barley.	Bushels of Oats.	Bushels of Rye.	Bushels of Buckwheat.	Bush. of Ind. corn.
Albany,.....	21,008	157,102	653,794	144,941	100,492	127,154
Allegany,.....	172,461	22,742	351,674	4,567	20,068	60,331
Broome,.....	66,369	184,185	26,443	31,259	84,033
Cattaraugus,...	127,665	10,134	258,339	1,112	8,368	81,202
Cayuga,.....	601,824	81,440	526,938	3,321	40,669	568,011
Chautauque,...	216,902	24,789	339,311	1,671	9,157	235,788
Chemung,.....	157,826	26,358	203,184	19,513	62,590	120,732
Chenango,.....	99,701	10,451	394,031	27,092	25,603	159,203
Clinton,.....	75,293	13,289	145,226	30,972	39,429	110,431
Columbia,.....	28,249	1,924	1,107,621	323,896	97,633	411,032
Cortland,.....	100,765	29,935	277,381	2,730	18,015	85,344
Delaware,.....	54,884	7,604	464,715	129,053	63,842	46,654
Dutchess,.....	171,619	2,540	1,360,623	175,551	86,983	710,473
Erie,.....	207,492	13,366	424,489	5,539	19,593	173,057
Essex,.....	60,454	3,158	170,396	29,121	25,610	78,662
Franklin,.....	64,414	4,084	89,194	15,017	22,685	55,537
Fulton,.....	25,162	22,879	245,708	33,573	31,011	59,886
Genesee,.....	911,596	85,832	691,672	4,699	19,247	220,776
Greene,.....	17,677	2,368	309,282	86,840	57,662	109,772
Hamilton,.....	3,021	497	13,697	789	2,843	3,660
Herkimer,.....	84,723	127,200	580,738	15,835	29,035	160,920
Jefferson,.....	395,066	74,023	436,798	17,849	36,291	444,430
Kings,.....	24,964	760	72,460	8,537	3,933	81,824
Lewis,.....	85,191	20,276	144,880	2,473	8,498	48,984
Livingston,...	823,050	84,276	305,519	3,624	26,524	184,730
Madison,.....	200,242	135,625	343,207	3,255	5,996	171,204
Monroe,.....	1,074,220	61,827	523,655	3,447	37,024	406,621
Montgomery,.	34,281	193,530	422,415	40,868	38,312	90,374
New York,.....	100	1,105	50	2,525
Niagara,.....	47,935	216,103	84	13,908	158,270
Oneida,.....	238,159	98,531	657,792	6,064	30,241	364,165
Onondaga,.....	467,699	384,615	538,751	3,593	14,420	401,293
Ontario,.....	770,235	117,060	462,266	6,162	16,964	246,018
Orange,.....	94,774	1,879	417,701	326,668	112,883	410,194
Orleans,.....	680,202	30,708	179,581	472	10,057	208,098
Oswego,.....	138,602	11,061	215,179	1,676	41,618	189,327
Otsego,.....	149,880	116,115	689,979	70,222	45,079	122,382

CEREAL GRAINS PRODUCED IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	Bushels of Wheat.	Bushels of Barley.	Bushels of Oats.	Bushels of Rye.	Bushels of Buckwheat.	Bush. of Ind. Corn.
Putnam,.....	12,250	86,421	35,367	37,099	86,679
Queens,.....	97,741	3,593	48,447	105,399	64,027	336,401
Rensselaer,....	21,454	9,488	810,332	247,703	54,767	329,193
Richmond,....	18,989	5,819	33,793	8,865	4,238	36,347
Rockland,.....	3,650	47,055	35,120	34,111	41,119
Saratoga,.....	72,001	17,005	496,089	162,450	85,974	328,631
Schenectady,..	13,113	91,524	216,968	52,278	41,218	62,597
Schoharie,.....	72,871	217,478	497,953	126,342	70,609	67,790
Seneca,.....	350,804	15,819	213,826	5,526	19,798	178,674
St. Lawrence,	277,897	24,128	341,910	23,571	34,312	206,014
Steuben,.....	389,475	23,543	397,305	14,919	59,502	101,804
Suffolk,.....	105,778	9,460	258,218	79,023	42,707	355,314
Sullivan,.....	8,763	151	117,382	70,496	51,815	50,245
Tioga,.....	107,002	1,058	180,867	4,987	17,181	117,449
Tompkins,.....	377,202	9,104	288,695	4,479	71,122	216,515
Ulster,.....	57,877	223,235	168,804	107,907	161,905
Warren,.....	11,868	1,207	23,633	17,567	24,647	63,476
Washington,..	49,189	9,569	466,064	136,510	32,642	297,405
Wayne,.....	571,083	18,087	476,900	4,460	38,062	338,356
Westchester,..	35,267	1,181	449,090	99,574	57,226	328,008
Yates,.....	705,628	61,988	324,966	4,204	41,782	208,132
TOTAL,.....	11,853,507	2,498,170	20,728,738	2,984,913	2,244,438	11,085,142

VARIOUS CROPS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK, 1840.

3. A Table, showing the number of pounds of wool, hops, wax, bushels of potatoes, tons of hay, and of hemp and flax, produced in the state of New York, as ascertained by the census of 1840.

COUNTIES.	Pounds of Wool.	Pounds of Hops.	Pounds of Wax.	Bushels of Potatoes.	Tons of Hay.	Tons of Hemp & Flax.
Albany,.....	96,877	373	1,388	540,582	47,342	5,407½
Allegany,.....	198,880	2,224	1,069	583,942	64,723	37
Broome,.....	78,365	294	303,812	28,214	9
Cattaraugus,...	109,939	1,050	789	452,453	48,752	5
Cayuga,.....	335,475	2,615	2,423	687,305	70,144	3,492
Chautauque,...	265,638	7,177	2,284	778,219	85,372	41,536
Chemung,.....	75,996	1,044	1,331	269,233	28,481	13
Chenango,.....	405,155	6,774	732	572,671	108,531	105
Clinton,.....	108,968	1,434	872	484,325	35,048	7,839
Columbia,.....	239,783	50	377	560,819	57,052
Cortland,.....	182,408	181	699	575,406	59,562	13
Delaware,.....	235,033	644	722,424	84,007	24½
Dutchess,.....	413,638	128	594,136	85,770
Erie,.....	139,900	510	556,382	55,115	18½
Essex,.....	162,639	906	470,235	42,424	417,306
Franklin,.....	67,584	24,021	40	468,706	24,904	8,165
Fulton,.....	61,583	411	454	402,954	26,372	14½
Genesee,.....	312,912	4,520	1,288	612,788	80,070	19
Greene,.....	67,268	99	730	302,882	47,047
Hamilton,.....	4,070	45,264	3,130	2,041
Herkimer,.....	168,348	289	1,162	850,865	96,854	15½
Jefferson,.....	356,842	2,905	52,253	1,156,741	171,228	21½
Kings,.....	150	95,805	5,437	1½
Lewis,.....	68,173	5,460	148	694,316	43,284

VARIOUS CROPS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	Pounds of Wool.	Pounds of Hops.	Pounds of Wax.	Bushels of Potatoes.	Tons of Hay.	Tons of Hemp & Flax.
Livingston,....	273,163	637	2,298	348,369	46,884	11
Madison,	370,024	117,270	1,089	676,649	65,749	10
Monroe,.....	265,363	16,761	967	721,470	52,258	2½
Montgomery, ..	69,600	720	559,829	69,270	112
New York,	18,585	747
Niagara,	82,337	10	8	284,881	19,985	7,388
Oneida,.....	320,858	38,724	2,673	1,572,109	178,256	2,482
Onondaga,....	316,139	7,907	39	800,317	64,145	4,446
Ontario,	364,553	14,523	789	395,829	52,954	8,441
Orange,.....	108,876	4,545	2,282	359,563	75,368	3
Orleans,.....	110,916	1,533	1,194	303,319	33,010	30,032
Oswego,	136,739	599,237	47,666	1
Otsego,	4,512,264	68,605	2,961	1,293,039	106,862	31
Putnam,.....	28,868	2	155	142,564	21,897
Queens,.....	43,200	4	91	214,121	31,437	2
Rensselaer,....	324,054	2,500	200	759,342	72,026	87½
Richmond,	172	101	53	47,712	3,610	3
Rockland,	7,132	620	48,117	20,917
Saratoga,	217,201	5,949	1,248	1,019,632	49,890	30
Schenectady, ..	18,849	29	806	239,535	17,742	13,788
Schoharie,	134,257	320	426	600,396	33,612	29½
Seneca,.....	166,354	1,203	820	203,393	38,163	2,958½
St. Lawrence, ..	239,274	3,560	547	1,423,172	100,216	16,639
Steuben,	406,346	312	1,850	652,588	69,984	18,346½
Suffolk,.....	84,008	1,834	603	170,836	42,891	3
Sullivan,	34,018	331	798	234,301	24,682	6
Tioga,.....	77,924	6,876	1,307	368,198	34,050	16
Tompkins,....	163,485	2,100	780	339,557	46,991	1
Ulster,.....	117,660	4,163	264,648	69,239	32½
Warren,.....	45,721	93	809	221,124	17,601	6,857
Washington,...	407,515	144	355	861,545	83,514	8,400
Wayne,.....	184,697	239	2,055	512,710	38,428	20½
Westchester, ..	52,805	620,920	76,873	½
Yates,.....	233,148	5,500	694	340,636	55,136	7½
TOTAL,.....	14,073,134	362,762	184,021	30,000,508	3,160,916	

In addition to the above, there were gathered in the counties of Allegany, Hamilton, Livingston, Monroe, Otsego, Schenectady, Seneca, and Washington, 6567 pounds of tobacco.

COTTON, SUGAR, SILK, &c., 1840.

4. A Table, showing the pounds of silk cocoons, pounds of sugar made, cords of wood sold, value of the products of the dairy, gallons of wine made, and the value of home-made goods, of the state of New York, as ascertained by the census of 1840.

COUNTIES.	Pounds of Silk Cocoons.	Pounds of Sugar made.	Cords of Wood sold.	Value of the Products of the Dairy.	Value of the Products of the Orch'd.	Gallons of Wine made.	Value of Home-made or Family Goods.
Albany,	24,366	17,491	126,343	33,012	15	60,386
Allegany,.....	25	571,727	1,904	114,666	10,090	87,791
Broome,.....	62,054	4,625	60,554	6,745	36,354
Cattaraugus,...	559,235	3,135	96,680	13,357	101,851
Cayuga,	45	206,545	31,489	187,937	47,365	103,430
Chautauque,...	60½	841,022	25,930	267,220	49,515	6	13,183,522

COTTON, SUGAR, SILK, 1840.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	Pounds of Silk Cocoons.	Pounds of Sugar made.	Cords of Wood sold.	Value of the Pro- ducts of the Dairy.	Value of the Pro- ducts of the Orch'd.	Gallons of Wine made.	Value of Home-made or Family Goods.
Chemung,.....		74,926	13,605	\$62,648	\$21,820	10	\$32,576
Chenango,.....		334,618	5,923	256,394	17,525		76,097
Clinton,.....	2	184,734	26,225	81,519	20,203		49,327
Columbia,.....	2	839	11,262	202,036	30,511	34	32,372
Cortland,.....	6	429,690	10,917	137,367	6,308		87,945
Delaware,.....	10	398,967	4,763	279,205	13,615		68,146
Dutchess,.....			15,527	643,834	49,046		43,024
Erie,.....		334,320	21,764	84,661	24,971		75,878
Essex,.....		113,357	20,688	94,827	17,004		55,155
Franklin,.....		227,049	5,416	79,290	8,387		13,528
Fulton,.....		80,127	8,334	81,173	4,925		25,812
Genesee,.....	230	531,633	15,538	157,830	59,845	4,221	105,160
Greene,.....		150	9,898	157,103	23,636	24	26,394
Hamilton,.....		35,156	116	11,976	687		4,972
Herkimer,.....	20	311,138	21,941	676,351	29,646		67,271
Jefferson,.....		501,158	47,002	373,622	19,507	3,230	121,087
Kings,.....				245,230	8,208		1,699
Lewis,.....		257,476	4,187	137,177	2,820		25,253
Livingston,....	124	119,436	13,919	95,079	33,768	46	58,745
Madison,.....	12	215,619	21,286	193,670	26,857		55,279
Monroe,.....	396	177,919	44,808	172,944	70,896	34	81,559
Montgomery, ..		51,691	12,071	120,236	16,507		39,435
New York, ..			40	22,400	800		
Niagara,.....		41,101	26,822	48,291	20,103		42,532
Oneida,.....	96	286,502	78,624	847,391	78,506	32	124,162
Onondaga,.....		178,520	50,842	164,289	35,333		97,236
Ontario,.....	19	183,273	21,328	72,499	40,285		62,064
Orange,.....			20,910	669,866	137,991		36,188
Orleans,.....		150,786	8,089	95,180	103,767	20	68,124
Oswego,.....	5	284,780	52,215	133,997	26,911		81,745
Otsego,.....	5	350,747	17,761	383,123	41,441		118,507
Putnam,.....		73	72,612	149,232	17,122		8,654
Queens,.....			9,787	142,412	38,504	167	2,857
Rensselaer,....	60	30,545	16,171	272,716	45,053	2	69,942
Richmond,	5		485	25,506	6,148		1,279
Rockland,			20,022	12,927	26,879		2,400
Saratoga,.....	100	20,910	30,955	157,403	31,859	16	95,926
Schenectady, ..		4,423	9,577	85,059	13,171	25	17,781
Schoharie,.....	4	133,776	5,484	86,808	17,629		60,260
Seneca,.....	8	25,845	16,382	51,522	27,267		24,629
St. Lawrence, ..	10	847,812	16,468	260,517	14,823	4,350	136,697
Steuben,.....	38	341,946	8,114	105,518	16,969	60	92,379
Suffolk,.....	31		66,023	148,537	28,560	1,026	49,488
Sullivan,.....	4	45,359	3,249	99,251	11,152	1,155	21,763
Tioga,.....	10	116,760	8,261	83,410	12,936		37,370
Tompkins,.....	200	88,747	11,284	110,110	18,443		57,855
Ulster,.....		30,845	33,036	238,383	37,309		93,669
Warren,.....		43,821	10,323	14,647	5,671		25,582
Washington, ..	14	4,246	8,772	171,395	24,554		41,041
Wayne,.....	25½	159,554	34,654	136,882	41,078	10	88,051
Westchester, ..			8,315	356,957	204,891	227	45,770
Yates,.....	340	78,768	6,674	150,232	40,426		310,896
TOTAL,.....	2103½	10,093,991	1,085,048	10,497,032	1,732,357	14,710	16,535,075

HORTICULTURE, GARDENS, NURSERIES, 1840.

5. A Table, showing the value of produce of market gardening; also, the value of produce of nurseries and florists, number of men employed in the same, and capital invested, of the state of New York, as ascertained by the census of 1840; derived from official documents.

COUNTIES.	GARDENS.		NURSERIES.		COUNTIES.	GARDENS.		NURSERIES.	
	Value of Produce of Market Gardeners.	Val. of Prod. of Nurseries and Florists.	Men employ'd.	Capital invested.		Value of Produce of Market Gardeners.	Val. of Prod. of Nurseries and Florists.	Men employ'd.	Capital invested.
Albany,.....	\$62,503	\$5,700	113	\$35,150	Oneida,.....			2	
Allegany,.....	300	75			Onondaga,...	\$2,620	\$400	7	\$500
Broome,.....					Ontario,.....			6	95
Cattaraugus,...					Orange,.....	1,900	6,000	10	23,000
Cayuga,.....	560	4,484	6	1,550	Orleans,.....	312			
Chautauque,...	11,477	1,764	47	12,506	Oswego,.....	890	600	9	605
Chemung,....	30	120			Otsego,.....				
Chenango,....					Putnam,.....	140		2	
Clinton,.....	200				Queens,.....	104,721	15,540	23	44,700
Columbia,....	9,000	100	1	100	Rensselaer,...	20,471	550	17	60,000
Cortland,....		1	1	1,000	Richmond,...	17,029			
Delaware,....					Rockland,....				
Dutchess,....	2,670		6	3,500	Saratoga,....	278			
Erie,.....	15,645	2,120	35	12,200	Schenectady,...	1,550		5	445
Essex,.....					Schoharie,...	68			
Franklin,....	30				Seneca,.....	535		4	960
Fulton,.....					St. La'rence,...	39,297			
Genesee,.....					Steuben,.....	155	79	3	300
Greene,.....	1,085	400	4	1,020	Suffolk,.....	50	80	10	1,345
Hamilton,....					Sullivan,.....		3		
Herkimer,....	400		2	130	Tioga,.....		200	2	100
Jefferson,....	3,025	286	7		Tompkins,...		330	3	750
Kings,.....	80,050	3,450	10	9,400	Ulster,.....		850	7	475
Lewis,.....					Warren,.....	3,357	40		
Livingston,...	2,389	28	19	1,440	Washington,...	180	25	1	
Madison,.....	90				Wayne,.....	3,274	500	13	2,952
Monroe,.....	6,315	7,975	32	16,425	Westchester,...	980	200	4	1,000
Montgomery,...	162		1	10	Yates,.....				
New York,...	62,640	24,650	106	26,350					
Niagara,.....	1,930		7	600	TOTAL,.....	462,308	76,550	525	258,608

AMERICAN BUTTER.

Considerable shipments of butter, mostly of inferior quality, have been made this season, from Philadelphia and also from New York, to England. In referring to a public sale of some of this butter, the London Journal of Commerce, of March 27, says:—

“At a public sale of American butter at Liverpool, it fetched, for best sorts, 84s.; seconds, 72s. to 74s., duty paid; while inferior only sold at 43s. to 44s., in bond, of which the parcel chiefly consisted. The quantities arrived at the London market show the same results, the principal part being sold for grease purposes. The American makers of butter are very far behind the Irish, English, or Dutch; from the first operation to the last all seems to be done without system or care: the same materials would, if managed by experienced hands, fetch in this market 25s. to 30s. more money. There is no attention paid to the making, salting, putting down, or packing.”

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES.

LEATHER, TANNERIES, SADDLIERIES, &c., IN NEW YORK.

A Table, exhibiting the number of tanneries, sides of sole and upper leather tanned, number of men employed, and capital invested; also, all other manufactories of leather, saddleries, the value of manufactured articles, and capital invested in each county of the state of New York; derived from the official report, as ascertained by the census of 1840.

COUNTIES.	Number of Tanneries.	Sides of Sole Leather tanned.	Sides of Upper Leather tanned.	Numb. of Men employed.	Capital invested.	All other ma- nufactories of leather, sad- dleries, &c.	Value of ma- nufactured articles.	Capital invested.
Albany,	20	43,300	4,025	142	\$210,700	80	\$329,450	\$149,665
Allegany,	30	2,980	7,791	61	38,100	10	58,280	69,320
Broome,	14	1,591	3,930	26	16,770	10,800	5,200
Cattaraugus, ...	24	2,552	3,911	70	15,650	32	37,551	8,900
Cayuga,	29	12,733	19,823	94	81,050	107	102,005	48,135
Chautauque, ...	46	8,149	13,415	179	75,275	93	84,099	36,050
Chemung,	12	2,780	2,872	38	25,650	22	39,660	10,800
Chenango,	30	10,816	6,545	64	80,750	52	52,496	31,201
Clinton,	21	2,019	4,740	47	25,460	62	36,950	37,250
Columbia,	10	1,200	5,790	155	37,700	19	49,700	33,500
Cortland,	17	3,027	5,673	36	29,750	34	49,270	23,025
Delaware,	28	68,548	7,229	120	141,510	44	39,875	19,555
Dutchess,	18	4,200	11,620	179	37,750	64	127,645	32,488
Erie,	26	31,463	27,373	105	56,000	60	140,120	23,570
Essex,	14	1,607	2,340	26	21,700	42	60,600	22,880
Franklin,	15	1,198	5,355	28	18,700	26	23,230	7,910
Fulton,	23	2,447	10,330	69	20,375	27,450	12,760
Genesee,	34	5,550	13,230	74	61,850	79	194,336	32,590
Greene,	29	271,161	19,416	341	377,200	16	30,528	10,650
Hamilton,
Herkimer,	38	29,658	31,784	198	171,600	120	90,360	36,375
Jefferson,	30	10,166	21,540	143	84,200	26	97,700	72,704
Kings,	1	4,360	100,000	19	30,000	20	162,600	30,000
Lewis,	16	1,110	3,633	24	5,600	61	42,111	16,090
Livingston,	13	90,047	130,510	33	26,150	86	105,884	48,691
Madison,	40	11,922	11,685	117	81,610	872	105,950	36,250
Monroe,	21	5,800	16,074	328	49,582	53	339,396	79,625
Montgomery, ..	16	4,729	19,139	57	42,550	8	17,230	7,420
New York, ...	1	2,000	3,500	407	26,400	173	1,522,156	526,330
Niagara,	2,695	680	5	4,800	37	66,951	26,570
Oneida,	61	41,692	100,831	256	256,900	171	264,486	117,761
Onondaga,	43	6,822	13,955	79	67,300	118	161,190	80,603
Ontario,	20	1,985	11,530	274	21,600	74	135,020	64,560
Orange,	28	6,154	10,912	82	84,800	100	276,600	193,775
Orleans,	10	3,230	4,898	25	21,800	38	68,630	24,750
Oswego,	25	40,265	12,465	89	102,300	19	108,692	23,460
Otsego,	47	48,253	20,146	143	152,800	102	81,659	48,774
Putnam,	6	965	13,500	24	24,800	19	57,000	5,310
Queens,	5	1,400	1,450	9	10,800	11	8,850	3,450
Rensselaer,	22	12,320	27,430	103	123,580	96	276,320	125,925
Richmond,	1	38	65	2	1,000	21	13,294	20,015
Rockland,	5	1,750	2,250	23	10,800	18	12,844	8,024
Saratoga,	27	9,869	15,870	63	42,102	37	47,410	17,415
Schenectady, ..	4	1,655	15,180	28	21,000	11	15,000	6,200
Schoharie,	32	82,028	20,250	145	88,600	23	25,250	14,801

LEATHER, TANNERIES, SADDLIERIES, ETC., IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—Continued

COUNTIES.	Number of Tanneries.	Sides of Sole Leather tanned.	Sides of Upper Leather tanned.	Numb. of Men employed.	Capital invested.	All other manufactories of leather, saddleries, &c.	Value of manufactured articles.	Capital invested.
Seneca,.....	8	4,170	13,710	36	\$36,350	14	\$31,100
St. Lawrence,	27	3,058	7,125	69	27,450	59	52,650	\$23,113
Steuben,.....	31	5,520	8,960	48	47,400	46	42,148	12,070
Suffolk,.....	16	712	2,988	44	20,580	48	28,485	19,520
Sullivan,.....	23	132,135	10,900	149	385,998	15,100	4,820
Tioga,.....	15	2,611	5,715	33	19,461	66	51,930	21,349
Tompkins,....	27	4,927	9,950	56	35,425	36	42,787	17,450
Ulster,.....	33	123,889	71,529	353	151,850	23	14,182	9,590
Warren,.....	9	30,892	1,905	50	102,860	3	2,800	1,800
Washington,...	19	4,140	6,423	66	25,010	54	104,410	21,640
Wayne,.....	25	14,321	8,955	55	37,850	50	46,495	7,000
Westchester,..	11	3,850	12,185	50	41,250	48	118,600	28,250
Yates,.....	16	3,364	4,800	272	36,500	4,400	139,370	51,950
TOTAL,.....	1,212	1,231,823	949,830	5,811	3,892,598	7,993	6,286,685	2,477,874

DISTILLED AND FERMENTED LIQUORS IN NEW YORK.

A Table, showing the number of distilleries in the state of New York, and gallons produced; number of breweries, and gallons produced; number of men employed, and capital invested, in each county. Derived from the official report, as ascertained by the census of 1840.

COUNTIES.	Number of Distilleries.	Gallons produced.	Number of Breweries.	Gallons produced.	No. of Men employed.	Capital invested.
Albany,.....	8	2,007,500	130	\$357,000
Allegany,.....	2	11,500	5	4,000
Broome,.....	1	40,000	2	2,000
Cattaraugus,...	1	800	2	500
Cayuga,.....	4	140,250	1	45,000	20	29,000
Chautauque,...	7	94,506	15	39,530
Chemung,.....	3	24,200	1	4,000	8	8,400
Chenango,.....	1	12,800	2	2,000
Clinton,.....	1	1	2,000
Columbia,.....	2	15,800	1	15,000	10	38,000
Cortland,.....	1	12,060	1	47,050	14	5,600
Delaware,.....
Dutchess,.....	1	400,000	40	203,000
Erie,.....	6	211,000	13	365,552	36	37,500
Essex,.....	1	1	2,000
Franklin,.....
Fulton,.....
Genesee,.....	3	34,000	1	35,600	9	17,500
Greene,.....	2
Hamilton,.....
Herkimer,.....	6	210,660	1	28,800	28	83,250
Jefferson,.....	9	313,344	8	64,000	31	37,500
Kings,.....	9	3,256,000	1	90,000	181	557,000
Lewis,.....	1	3,000
Livingston,....	8	105,612	2	42,450	19	17,300
Madison,.....	7	468,708	1	54,410	38	50,850
Monroe,.....	7	265,470	5	214,960	55	80,000
Montgomery,...	6	279,000	2	90,000	42	55,500
New York,...	11	2,973,278	15	1,205,490	274	575,076

DISTILLED AND FERMENTED LIQUORS IN NEW YORK.—Continued.

COUNTIES.	Number of Distilleries.	Gallons produced.	Number of Breweries.	Gallons produced.	No. of Men employed.	Capital invested.
Niagara,	2	12,600	2	45,200	14	\$22,200
Oneida,	11	716,797	4	204,000	82	194,800
Onondaga,	7	591,456	1	10,000	39	103,700
Ontario,	14	187,345	3	17,000	44	58,900
Orange,	41	65,018	1	558,000	128	147,100
Orleans,			1	3,000	5	8,000
Oswego,						
Otsego,	9	827,804	1	19,200	17	16,600
Putnam,						
Queens,	1	202,500			3	20,000
Rensselaer,	1	200,000	4	667,550	47	125,000
Richmond,						
Rockland,	2	1,886			4	
Saratoga,	2	181,704			6	10,000
Schenectady,			1	128,000	9	12,000
Schoharie,			1	17,360	2	1,000
Seneca,		581,300	1	25,600	63	110,000
St. Lawrence,	1	35,517			5	8,500
Steuben,	2	27,675			4	4,200
Suffolk,						
Sullivan,	3	3,730			3	
Tioga,	2	35,000			6	4,000
Tompkins,	5	83,000	1	22,600	18	16,000
Ulster,						
Warren,						
Washington,						
Wayne,	6	357,000		31,000	12	21,250
Westchester,	1					
Yates,		140,590			12	27,020
TOTAL,	206	8,710,110	86	6,471,122	1,486	3,214,776

DISTILLERIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

A Table, showing the number of distilleries in the United States, and the number of gallons distilled in 1840; copied from the records of the Department of State, at Washington, by the Hon. William Slade, of Vermont.

STATES.	Number of Distilleries.	Gallons Distilled.	STATES.	Number of Distilleries.	Gallons Distilled.
Maine,	3		Alabama,	185	127,261
New Hampshire,	5	31,244	Mississippi,	15	3,150
Vermont,	2	3,500	Louisiana,	5	291,520
Massachusetts,	37	5,177,910	Tennessee,	1,381	1,080,693
Connecticut,	71	215,892	Arkansas,	47	17,215
Rhode Island,	4	855,000	Kentucky,	890	1,700,705
New York,	38	4,008,616	Missouri,	215	328,898
New Jersey,	219	356,417	Illinois,	150	1,429,119
Pennsylvania,	707	8,784,138	Indiana,	322	1,786,964
Delaware,	3	39,500	Ohio,	373	466,357
Maryland,	73	342,813	Michigan,	59	544,066
Virginia,	1,450	882,516	Iowa,	2	4,310
North Carolina,	2,798	1,038,741	District of Columbia,	1	6,000
South Carolina,	251	102,288			
Georgia,	350	528,393	TOTAL,	9,657	36,343,236

If the population of the United States be correctly estimated at 17 millions, the above quantity of distilled spirits will furnish each person with 2 14-100 gallons nearly.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE, TRADE, AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1840.

A document of great importance to those interested in trade and navigation has been prepared and laid before parliament, by Mr. Porter, in charge of the statistical department of the board of trade. The following abstract of this interesting document is derived from the London Journal of Commerce. It exhibits the extent of our trade with Great Britain, and its vast importance.

The returns show that the quantity of foreign wheat imported in 1839, to make up for the deficient harvest of 1838, was 2,634,557 quarters, which, calculated on an average of 60s. per quarter, gives £7,903,671 as the price, which may be said to have been paid to foreigners in hard bullion. The duty received on that amount was only £631,698, while for less than two millions of quarters the duty received last year was £725,045.

The duty on sugar has also fallen off, notwithstanding the increased amount of foreign sugar entered for home consumption. In 1840, 4,031,913 cwts. of sugar were imported, against 4,678,219 cwts. in 1839. The quantity of foreign sugar imported in the former year was 806,073 cwts., against 722,777 cwts. in the latter. Of this foreign sugar 2,444 cwts. were entered for home consumption in 1840, against 51 cwts. in 1839.

The following are the particulars of the importations :—

	1839.	1840.
Of British possessions in America,.....cwts.	2,823,931	2,198,746
Of Mauritius,.....	612,586	544,767
Of East India,.....	518,925	482,327
Of Foreign,.....	722,777	806,073

The gross amount of duty received on sugar since 1840 was £4,465,020, against £4,628,355 in 1839.

In coffee there has been a considerable increase of duty, which in 1840 was £922,862, against £779,853 in 1839. The importations were in 1840, 69,534,071 lbs., against 41,003,316 in 1839, and were thus made up :—

	1839.	1840.
Of British possessions in America, and Africa,.....pounds	11,469,600	12,780,080
Of Cape of Good Hope, and the East Indies,.....	4,260,095	8,261,503
Of Foreign Indian,.....	20,802,086	35,815,815
Of other foreign,.....	4,471,535	12,726,673

In tea, the duty has fallen off; in 1840 it was £3,473,951, against £3,660,053 in 1839; the quantities imported were, in the former year, 27,462,893 lbs., against 38,158,009 lbs. in the latter.

The duty on foreign spirits has also decreased. On rum there was received, in 1840, £1,154,544, on 2,510,668 gallons, entered for home consumption, against £1,273,765, on 2,830,612 gallons in 1839. The quantity actually imported was, in 1840, 4,310,101 gallons, against 5,447,669 gallons in 1839. In brandy, the duty in 1840, was £1,259,769, against £1,309,201, and the quantities imported 3,389,861 gallons, against 2,271,172 gallons.

The duty paid on unmanufactured tobacco, in 1840, was £3,525,956, against £3,431,908 in 1839. The quantities imported were in 1840, 35,637,826 lbs., against 35,605,223 lbs. in 1839.

The duty paid on foreign wines, in 1840, was £1,872,110, against £1,915,364 in 1839; the quantities imported were, in 1840, 9,316,650 gallons, against 9,909,056 gallons in 1839.

The duty on cotton wool, in 1840, was £650,635, against £417,045 in 1839. The whole quantity imported, in 1840, was 592,965,504 lbs., against 389,396,559 lbs. in 1839, and was thus made up:—

	1839.	1840.
Of British possessions in America,.....pounds	678,125	430,435
Of ditto in India,.....	47,233,959	76,703,295
Of United States,.....	311,567,798	488,572,510
Of Brazil,.....	16,971,979	14,888,464
Of Egypt,.....	2,864,748	6,423,414
Otherwise imported,.....	10,049,950	5,950,386

The duty on raw silk shows an increase for last year of £2000, and that of manufactured silk has also improved to the same amount. The India silk trade exhibits a serious falling off, the duty having diminished from £17,000 to £13,000.

The duties received for deals and deal-ends from British America has improved last year by £20,000, in comparison with the year preceding:—

The total declared value of our exports for the year ending January 5, 1840, was.....	£45,307,409
Year ending January 5, 1841,.....	43,924,958
Less in 1841,.....	£1,382,451

The cotton manufactures in the first named year was £17,692,183, against £17,561,711 in the last; cotton yarn £6,858,193, against £7,099,468 in the last; hardwares and cutlery £1,828,521, against £1,345,881; linen manufactures £3,414,967, against £3,305,545; metals, iron, and steel, £2,719,825, against £2,508,526; woollen manufactures £6,271,650, against £5,336,275.

The produce of the customs was—

Gross receipts inwards, year ending January 5, 1840,.....	£23,278,089
Duties outwards,.....	127,182
	£23,405,271
Year ending Jan. 5, 1841, the gross receipts inwards were....	£23,466,117
Duties outward,.....	118,287
	23,584,404
Increase in the year ending Jan. 5, 1841,.....	£179,133
The nett receipts were, year ending Jan. 5, 1840,.....	£23,681,680
“ “ year ending Jan. 5, 1841,.....	23,271,848

The ships employed in the foreign trade were—

Entered Inwards.—Year ending 5th January, 1840:—ships, 23,114; tonnage, 3,957,468. Year ending 5th January, 1841:—ships, 22,725; tonnage, 4,404,207.

Cleared Outwards.—Year ending 5th January, 1840:—ships, 18,424; tonnage, 3,085,752. Year ending 5th January, 1841:—ships, 19,710; tonnage, 3,392,626.

Ships employed in the coasting trade:—

Entered Inwards.—Year ending 5th January, 1840:—ships, 130,254; tonnage, 10,610,404. Year ending 5th January, 1841:—ships, 133,299; tonnage, 10,706,056.

Cleared Outwards.—Year ending 5th January, 1840:—ships, 142,895; tonnage, 11,266,073. Year ending 5th January, 1841:—ships, 146,127; tonnage, 11,417,901.

The following tables distinguish the countries to which the vessels employed in the foreign trade respectively belong. The greatest tonnage so engaged, we observe, is that of the United States, which, last year, was 432,486 tons inwards, and 396,566 outwards. Prussia is next in rank, and Norway follows:—

NAVIGATION OF GREAT BRITAIN.—YEARS ENDING 5TH OF JAN.
L.—ENTERED INWARDS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH THE VESSELS BELONGED.	1840.		1841.	
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
United Kingdom and dependencies,	14,348	2,756,533	14,370	2,807,367
Russia,	259	73,012	275	79,445
Sweden,	207	28,257	236	33,913
Norway,	969	134,449	936	141,689
Denmark,	1,557	110,727	1,440	114,590
Prussia,	1,165	292,258	1,186	218,403
Other German states,	1,171	83,267	1,207	90,842
Holland,	731	61,923	669	56,952
Belgium,	313	42,141	239	32,648
France,	1,508	102,123	1,045	60,063
Spain,	68	7,732	72	8,312
Portugal,	63	6,872	87	8,983
Italian States,	100	40,026	72	16,878
Other European states,	1	200	1	250
United States of America,	579	286,658	887	432,486
Other states in America, Africa, or Asia, ..	7	1,290	3	888
TOTAL,	23,114	3,957,468	22,725	4,105,207

H.—CLEARED OUTWARDS.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH THE VESSELS BELONGED.	1840.		1841.	
	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Ships.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
United Kingdom and dependencies,	11,952	2,197,614	12,934	2,408,792
Russia,	131	36,828	94	25,903
Sweden,	151	17,287	167	18,650
Norway,	265	24,768	235	28,153
Denmark,	1,255	86,864	1,210	85,249
Prussia,	556	98,517	570	94,475
Other German states,	757	55,051	801	60,324
Holland,	513	48,830	628	58,592
Belgium,	100	52,567	297	44,367
France,	1,671	136,923	1,705	136,614
Spain,	52	6,221	59	6,916
Portugal,	55	6,021	76	8,914
Italian States,	119	26,633	67	18,346
Other European states,	5	1,024	1	289
United States of America,	579	291,586	813	396,566
Other states in America, Africa, or Asia, ..	2	111	2	476
TOTAL,	18,424	3,085,752	19,710	3,392,626

Export of plain and printed calicoes from England, during the last nine years.

Year.	BRITISH WEST INDIES.		FOREIGN WEST INDIES.		UNITED STATES.	
	<i>Yds. plain.</i>	<i>Yds. printed.</i>	<i>Yds. plain.</i>	<i>Yds. printed.</i>	<i>Yds. plain.</i>	<i>Yds. printed.</i>
1832	5,213,700	7,214,700	10,556,000	9,463,900	13,599,300	12,435,600
1833	8,460,600	7,168,700	9,273,600	11,223,500	15,000,000	12,290,600
1834	7,895,000	9,449,500	5,923,300	10,000,000	15,000,000	19,713,300
1835	12,626,600	13,797,200	6,712,300	8,000,000	2,000,000	43,980,300
1836	12,672,700	13,363,600	20,981,700	10,000,000	1,000,000	32,028,300
1837	11,408,700	11,230,700	5,131,100	7,000,000	1,000,000	13,902,600
1838	14,616,800	13,377,200	8,281,300	10,000,000	11,389,200	22,662,200
1839	15,746,400	21,155,900	6,876,200	12,000,000	11,194,900	22,439,800
1840	17,032,200	22,081,000	7,080,700	10,000,000	7,439,500	17,775,600

MERCANTILE OBITUARY.**JOSEPH MAY, Esq.**

The subject of this obituary notice was generally known, and extensively revered, at the east. A native of Boston, his eighty-one years were so spent, that few men ever went more truly lamented to the grave. His judicious benevolence, his noble elevation of sentiment, his unimpeachable purity of purpose, his many years of public usefulness, his joy in advanced years, and happiness at the approach of death, may well fasten upon him profitably our passing thoughts. Educated a merchant, suddenly arrested in the midst of a profitable business, obliged to fail, and lose a well-earned fortune,—he passed through the trial of adversity without a stain,—nay, admired for the conscientious honesty which moved him to give up all, even the ring upon his finger, to his creditors. Disappointed in his first hopes, he resolved never again to seek for riches, acknowledging that he had been too eager in the pursuit. Refusing several advantageous invitations to partnership in business, he devoted the residue of his life to the secretaryship of an insurance office. But this proved to him no idle station. The public confidence continually called him to the charge of most important public institutions, and to private trusts of the most delicate nature, to the guardianship of children, the administration of estates, and the oversight of the widow and the orphan. In all, we may say of him, what was recorded of the afflicted patriarch in the scriptures, “he sinned not” even “with his mouth.”

By a small and limited income he did great good. Many orphans were educated by him, and brought forward into life; many in active life were saved by his counsel from pecuniary or moral harm; many widows were rescued from suffering, and encouraged to maintain themselves honorably. He seemed to live by the good emperor’s maxim, “never to leave any interval between one benevolent act and another.” He never hastily dismissed the claims of any; his presence was a blessing to them all: he was a “father to the poor; and the cause he knew not, that he searched out.” It was the crown of his advanced years that many children, of those he had befriended, gathered around him to express their gratitude.

He was a delightful chronicler of the olden time; no fact of the past seemed to lose its fresh interest with him. At the same time he never became a repeater of legends. He devoted some hours every day to a wisely-selected course of reading. And among the classical authors of English literature he was always quite at home.

His views of wealth were not peculiar to himself, but such as are rarely put in practice by any one. He believed that what are called splendid prospects were often most pernicious in their influence upon the young; and while he despised avarice himself, and was happy in a very moderate competency, he told his eldest son on leaving college, that “he thanked God he had not property to leave him which could hold him up in a place among men where he did not deserve to stand.” “He knew many,” he used to say, “who were stinted in life by feeling there was no necessity upon them to labor because of an expected inheritance; many, who, by this ill-judged kindness, were exposed to habits pernicious and disgraceful.”

Thus died, on the 27th February, 1841, one whose passing away far more deserves our careful heed than that of envied opulence, or the most successful commercial enterprise. For we can learn of Mr. M., if no more, how to live happily and honorably in limited circumstances, go to our rest lamented by all men, and enter heaven attended by the blessings and supplications of the wretched and the poor.

F. W. B.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE DECIMAL SYSTEM IN WEIGHTS, ETC.

TO FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ. :—

SIR,—The May number of your valuable magazine contains an article under the head of “Coins, Weights, and Measures,” in which the writer informs us that the whole system of measurements in Great Britain is about to be modified by introducing the *decimal notation*; and, very ably and judiciously, takes occasion to urge a like improvement in this country. Having at hand a few facts which bear upon this subject, I have thought that the offer of them might be agreeable to yourself and some of your readers, especially to the author of that article.

1. The decimal system, in our national coinage, was introduced with the coinage itself. Robert Morris, financier of the confederation, made a report upon the subject in 1782. That report, (which is stated to be due to the assistant-financier, Gouverneur Morris,) recommended a decimal nomenclature of coins. It, however, devolved upon Thomas Jefferson to perfect the proposition, who made the Spanish dollar his normal coin, and therefrom deduced the various divisions and multiples which make up our catalogue of gold, silver, and copper coins. The following extract is from his report:—“The most easy ratio of multiplication and division is that by *ten*. Every one knows the facility of decimal arithmetic. Every one remembers, that when learning money arithmetic, he used to be puzzled with adding the farthings, taking out the fours, and carrying them on; adding the pence, taking out the twelves, and carrying them on; adding the shillings, taking out the twenties, and carrying them on; but when he came to the pounds, when he had only tens to carry forward, it was easy and free from error. The bulk of mankind are schoolboys through life.” The report was adopted in 1785; and, seven years after, was put in practice, upon the establishment of the mint.

2. The decimal system, *in weights*, has been in use at the mint (and its branches) since the passage of the monetary law of January, 1837. It was not, indeed, provided for by that law; but the director (Dr. Patterson) saw that the opportunity was favorable for a change in that respect, and embraced it. The unit is the troy ounce; and its division is into tenths, hundredths, and thousandths. All the standard weights, and all entries, are conformed to this style. The old system of pennyweights and grains is used only in a conversational way, to express the weight of a very small quantity, such as a single coin.

3. The decimal system, *in fineness*, has been used at the mint since January, 1835. When it became embodied in the law, two years after, the coins of gold and silver being established at the fineness of nine parts in ten, its convenience and simplicity, as contrasted with the old style, were very striking. Thus, the fineness of our gold coins, from 1792 to July, 1834, was 22 carats, that is, $\frac{22}{24}$; from the latter date until January, 1837, it was 21 carats, $2\frac{1}{4}$ car. grs. So the silver, from 1792 to 1837, was 1485 parts fine in 1664. At the mint, it was customary to use the British formulary, and call it 10 oz. 14 dwts. $4\frac{5}{8}$ grs. fine, per pound troy.” The change from this to “nine parts in ten” was very sensibly felt, in all the calculations and accounts.

4. To get rid of the awkward Spanish parts of the dollar, ($12\frac{1}{2}$ and $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents,) still so much in use among us, the writer of the article in question proposes to value the *real* and its half at 10 and 5 cents. Six years ago, it was ascertained at the mint, that the piece of $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents, on an average, as found in circulation, was worth $11\frac{1}{8}$ cents; the piece of $6\frac{1}{4}$ cents was worth $5\frac{1}{8}$ cents. As these coins are not sustained by new emissions of full weight, and are so much worn as to be almost worn out, they may be very properly estimated at the rates proposed by your correspondent. Indeed, nothing but the exigency of the times seems to sustain them, at their nominal rates.

D. B.

MEXICAN DOLLARS.

Dr. Hort, the assayer of the United States Branch Mint at New Orleans, informs such persons as are in the habit of depositing Mexican dollars at the mint, under the impression of realizing some profit from the recoinage, that there is at present in circulation in New Orleans a large amount of Mexican dollars, of a depreciated standard, and varying considerably as to the extent of the depreciation. From the results of repeated assays made during the three last years, he has discovered four descriptions of the above currency, of the following respective values:—

Of the 1st description the dollar is worth.....	62	22-100
Of the 2d do. do. do.	72	22-100
Of the 3d do. do. do.	83	50-100
Of the 4th do. do. do.	96	33-100

At the present time the dollars of the third description, worth 83½ cents, are by far the most abundant in circulation. They are so well executed that very few persons, even the most experienced, can detect them. The letter “D” is stamped on them, intimating that they come from the mint at Durango. He further observes, that the Mexican gold coins have hitherto, on an average, sustained their legal title and estimated value.

IMPORTANT TO MANUFACTURERS OF FLOUR.

Several manufacturers of flour send their flour to the New York market without properly taring and branding the barrels, and thereby causing much extra trouble and expense. The provisions of the New York law are—that the tare shall be marked on the head with a marking iron; they shall likewise be branded with the weight of the flour, and with the initials of the Christian name and the surname of the manufacturers, at full length; and the quality of the flour shall also be branded. There is a provision that the name of the manufacturer may be painted, but the weight and quality of the flour must be branded with a hot iron. If the barrels are not tared by the manufacturer in conformity to the law, they are subject to the charge of six cents per barrel for taring by the inspector; and the charge for branding is one cent per barrel in addition. If the flour be found light in weight, or the tare undermarked, it is subject to the expense of six cents per barrel for weighing, besides being liable to a penalty of five dollars for each barrel so found light or undermarked.

PORTRAITS ON ROMAN COINS.

It is stated in “Akerman’s Numismatic Manual” that, in the earliest and more simple days of Rome, the portraits of no living personage appeared on the public money; the heads were those of their deities, or some personage who had received divine honors. Julius Cæsar was the first who obtained express permission of the senate to place his portrait on the coins; and his example was soon followed by others. The heads of Lepidus, and of Antony, appear on their denarii; and even the money of Brutus, with the two daggers and the cap of liberty, bears on the obverse the head of the man who killed his friend because he had assumed the regal power and authority. We have no evidence, however, that this money, which is of great rarity, was struck with the knowledge and sanction of Brutus; and it is possible that it is a posthumous coin.

NEW YORK BUSINESS DIRECTORY.

Mr. J. Doggett, Jr., has published a new mercantile directory, on an improved plan. The classification of professions and trades, which forms part of the volume, is a most important and valuable requisite in a directory designed for the business community. It is arranged in alphabetical order, and the names of firms are given in full. It is evidently prepared with care, and reflects great credit on the industry and taste of the enterprising proprietor.

TOBACCO SUITABLE FOR EUROPEAN MARKETS.

The description of leaf tobacco most suitable for the London market, is that of a light red, copper, or cinnamon color, with a large, thick, tough leaf, free from blisters and pieces of waxy dark tobacco, and without any mixture of broken-off short leaves. A most essential point to be observed in the assortment, is the dry condition of the tobacco, without which it will not keep, but gets mouldy and heated. The casks should be uniformly packed, so that there be no bad and heated caps at each end, weighing about 10 to 10½ cwts., and the tobacco lightly pressed when packed, as by too great pressure it becomes sticky, and the color, which it is important to preserve, is liable to become darkened.

Stemmed tobacco, or strips, should be lightly pressed, in order to allow easy inspection of the length and quality of the leaf itself; and it is desirable that the color should be bright, and the stalk uniformly well stripped off.

For the north of Spain and Germany, dark, rich, long, sweet, leafy tobacco is required. In Flanders, the commonest description is taken, the lowness of price being in that quarter the main consideration.

AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

A regular trade is kept up between Pittsburg, (Penn.,) and the Santa Fé country. A merchant there, a Mr. Beeler, ships goods in a steamboat for Independence, Missouri, which are taken thence in wagons to Santa Fé, a distance of 897 miles by land. Goods are also consigned to him for the American Fur Company, from the eastern cities, to be sent on steamboats to St. Louis, and then be loaded in steamers to the Yellow Stone, 3060 miles; there reloaded into keelboats, and taken to the very head of the Missouri river to the company's fort and store, in the Rocky Mountains, 600 miles farther. The whole distance to which, from the eastern cities, is about 5640 miles. Such is the spirit of trade and commerce.

THE article in the present number of this magazine on "Maryland, and its Resources," prepared, at our request, by W. G. Lyford, Esq., editor of the Baltimore Commercial Journal and Price Current, is a continuation of the series of papers on the resources of the several states, which was commenced in the April number by an article on the "Commerce and Resources of New Hampshire." We call upon our friends, and all who are interested in the subject in the United States, to aid us in our purpose, either by furnishing us with articles, or the materials for their preparation. It is our plan to render the "MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE" truly national in its character, and to develop, as far as it may be in our power, the commercial resources of our whole country; but, to do this, we must rely upon the aid of the patriotic and intelligent citizens of the different states.

ERRATA to Professor Tucker's article, in the June number of this magazine, on "Import Duties :"—

Page 507, 25th line from the top, for "about four per cent," read *thirty*; and for "thirty," read *four*.

" 516, line 25, for "*fero tali*," read *pro tali*.

" 520, tenth line from the bottom, after "either," insert *first*.

" 520, " " " for "*second*," read *secondly*.

" 520, ninth line from the bottom, for "*third*," read *thirdly*.

" 522, line 22, for "*that*," read *then*.

" 522, " 23, for "*producers*," read *consumers*.

" 522, seventeenth line from the bottom, for "*which*" read *what*.

" 524, line 12, for "*benefits of trade*," read *benefits of free trade*.

HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

AUGUST, 1841.

ART. I.—THE COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF FRANCE.

I.

THE BOURBONS BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

COULD the marshals who paid, a few months ago, the last tribute to the Emperor Napoleon, have reviewed the revolutions in which they stood by his side ; or, going further, have called up before them the memory of the convulsions in the midst of which their childhood had passed, they would have brought together the materials for a drama more bold than the most imaginative poet could have conceived, and yet as strictly shackled by the laws of unity as could have been required by the most rigid censor. The course of an ordinary lifetime was sufficient to cover the humiliation and overthrow of the most absolute dynasty in Europe ; the subsequent construction of a democracy, the most licentious ; the establishment of an empire the most splendid ; and finally, after every note had been struck to which the finger of the speculatist could reach, the erection of a monarchy whose chief characteristic is its freedom from the points that more prominently distinguished its predecessors. The Bourbons were dethroned because they paid no attention to the demands of the lower classes ; and after them arose a system which was ineffectual, because it paid attention to nothing else. The empire was built on the experience of the structures whose place it was to supply ; and while, on the one hand, by means of its splendid victories and munificent improvements, it conciliated the affections of the third estate, it preserved to its founder the supreme authority, untrammelled by the restraints which a representative government would throw over him. The administration of Louis Philippe, like a shuttlecock, which can only be kept above-ground by being kept in motion, has passed from policy to policy with a swiftness so great, that it is difficult to discover in it the existence of those great characteristics which marked the establishments which it follows. There has been a steady progress, we acknowledge, since the revolution of 1830, to an increased liberalization of the state. Its finances have been placed in an

order which gradually approaches, in its symmetry, to the model which is afforded by those of Great Britain. While the political constitution of the realm has varied from shape to shape, its commercial energies have expanded to an extent which will oppose a barrier to the encroachments of prerogative, which it will require a second revolution to overthrow. The smallest manufactory at Lyons is a republic in itself; and by its looms, or at its engine, stand men who have learnt in the best school which the philosopher can devise, the value and the extent of their rights. The peasant, who lifted his arm against the crying oppression and the gross licentiousness of Louis XV., has been followed by the well-fed and enterprising manufacturer, who still retains, in the increased advantages which he possesses for self-defence, the spirit which would enable him to make use of them. We traced, in a preceding number, the course by which a private bank, started by a Scotch adventurer in Paris, arose to a pitch of credit and of strength so great, that it involved in its existence the temporary prosperity and the immediate resources of the state. We might rehearse at present, as a fit introduction to a consideration of the commercial history of the French nation, the bold assumptions by which it drew within its vaults the entire circulation of the kingdom, till after having fairly taken on board the floating wealth which was thus brought together, it foundered in the first storm, and cast its treasures in wreck on the shore, to be snatched up by the officers of the customs as the prizes of the king's prerogative. The history of the Mississippi Scheme is the best illustration which can be brought forward, of the profligacy of the times that produced it. We proceed, in carrying out the plan which we suggested in the summary which we have already given of its operations, to consider the condition of the actual resources of the realm, in the period that intervened between the bankruptcy under Louis XV., and the revolution under his successor.

"I may be blamed for having neglected the agricultural resources of the realm," said Calonne, when delivering his last account; "but if I have done so, it has been because my whole administration has been devoted to the fostering of its manufactures." The principle of Louis XIV., that the producing and the working classes must ever remain hostile, had led the court, in choosing which of the antagonist interests it should prefer, to bestow its patronage on that which possessed the most available means at hand. The silk and porcelain manufactories were growing up with a rapidity that had startled the old economists from theories which they had drawn from the sluggish movements of the landed capitalists. The shackles which a little while after were laid on trade, were not then in existence; and the operations of the French merchants were extending over the continent under the privilege with which they were endowed, of pursuing their schemes without the interference of the king or his council. While the native productions of the realm were rapidly vanishing, its manufactures, whether they were framed from the resources which were supplied at home, or from the raw material from other countries, increased till they obtained throughout Europe a market which opened to them a source of boundless wealth. Had the commerce of France been left to itself by the civil administration, and had it been properly backed by her producing interests, it would have preserved, in all probability, to the present moment, the supremacy, both in east and west, to which it had at first attained.

When the feudal tenures were abolished in Great Britain, they opened to the tenant himself the prospects of self-advancement, which the freehold possession of his land afforded to him. He was master of the soil, unclogged by those unwise restrictions, which could rob him of the feeling of independence, and place him in the position of a slave, rather than of a citizen. The sharpest incentive to labor, is the certainty of reaping its fruits. The laboring man will never sow that the wild-fowl may gather; and when he finds that the taxes which gild the royal nest, eat away three-fourths of what he produces, he throws aside his spade, and falls back on pauperism, as the most likely means of support. When the military services which were due from the tenant to the lord paramount, were commuted into a pecuniary tax, it affected those only who ceased, under its provisions, to bear arms; while the nobles and gentlemen who followed the court, were discharged from the payment of money, on the ground that they continued to perform the military services for which it was intended to be a compensation. But when, after a while, both peer and peasant became liable to be called upon to serve in the armies of the king, nothing could be more unjust than a distinction which was based upon a principle which no longer existed. The nobleman was discharged from tax-paying, because he was liable to be drawn into military service; the people themselves, though they had consented to a tax on condition they should be relieved from bearing arms, were forced, before a great while, to perform the duty, from the obligations of which they had been by contract discharged. The consequence was, that the whole burden of the realm fell on the minor proprietors of the soil, who were forced to pay, not only for their own oppression, but for the extravagance of the overseers who imposed it. The burden it would be difficult to estimate by the ordinary rules of political economy. The lands alone were taxed at one tenth of their value; while every article which they produced, after having been subject to the exactions which the remains of the feudal system placed in the hands of the lord paramount, was brought under the ordeal of a heavy excise. There was no distinction made between what was necessary for every-day use, and for exportation or luxury. Salt was in great demand by the lower classes, as the only relish which they could obtain to flavor their rough food; and therefore, salt became the subject of a heavy impost. If it was discovered that the revenue of the approaching season would be insufficient to meet the expenditures, the court, by an edict of a character so despotic that it is difficult to imagine authority absolute enough to support it, would lower the value of the coin before the tax was collected; and then, when their treasury was rich with the unusual prize, raise it again to its former standard. That vast achievement of fraud and violence, which in a former number we described, and which involved the smaller proprietors of the kingdom in a bankruptcy which pushed them to utter ruin, is the most striking illustration which we can bring forward, of the recklessness of the financial policy of France before the administration of Necker.

It may not be out of place at present, to explain briefly the character of the French tenures, as they existed at the accession of Louis XVI. Who is there, who looks at the masses who sprang up when the first trumpet was sounded, without wondering from what quarter they had come, or under what auspices they had been diverted so totally from that natural love of the soil on which they had grown, and the cottages in

which they had dwelt, which in other countries bears so powerful an influence? The French revolutionist was without a home, and we may say, without a country. He was deprived of a freehold interest in the soil, and was deprived, therefore, of a corporate interest in its welfare. That men will be found, under the most favorable circumstances, who will refuse to earn a livelihood by their own industry, or retain that which was transmitted to them by others, there is no doubt; but in France, at the period that preceded the revolution, two thirds of the population were outcasts. They were bankrupt and homeless; and we think that it may be said to have been the leading cause of the convulsion which succeeded, that they who produced it had no means of subsistence, except in the confusion it should afford. With a gigantic effort of despair, they tore up the forest that shaded them, to seek amid its roots the food which should supply their hunger. They were in a condition which has been called intermediate between slavery and freedom; but if they were subject to the responsibilities of the latter state, they were equally bound by the restraints of the former. The *Metayers*, or, as they were named in Latin, the *Coloni Partiarü*, formed the greater part of the out-door laborers under the old economy; and though their immunities were greater than those of the old English *villains*, we cannot but believe that in many instances, the superior privileges with which they were intrusted became additional links in their shackles. The great proprietor, though without an absolute ownership of the land, was able, through the possession of the capital with which its stock was to be bought, and its implements to be provided, to reduce its cultivators into vassalage. As the farmer was unable to pay immediately the sum thus borrowed, he bound his land as security through a perpetual rent, by which he stipulated to pay half its produce to the proprietor. "It could never," says Adam Smith, "be the interest of the *metayers* to lay out, in the further improvement of the land, any part of the little stock which they might save from their own share of the produce, because the lord, who laid out nothing, was to get one half of whatever it produced." The subtraction of a tithe from the annual produce of land, has a sensible effect in diminishing the tenant's expenditure for its improvement; and when one half of its value is taken from his hands, he must possess still less disposition to throw the scanty fund that will remain after his immediate expenses are paid, into so barren an investment. It was very natural, therefore, that in a country where five parts out of six of the cultivators held their land by so oppressive a tenure, the landlords found that the land grew yearly more barren, their rents more irregular, and their estates less productive. It may palliate the bitterness of the first insurrectionists, we may be permitted to add, to reflect that they were slaves in every thing but in the exemption from self-support which slavery affords; and that they pressed, like the wolf, to the road-side, from the frozen hills in which they could no longer be nourished, to prolong their existence by a recourse to those primary laws which a state of desperation recalls.

We pass over, as foreign to the subject at present before us, the consideration of French taxation, as finally developed in the reign of Louis XV. We might argue, with Necker, that as the productiveness of the land must vary with the extent of the burdens with which it is laden, and as its political welfare, as well as its commercial existence, must depend upon its productiveness, the extent in which its taxes are imposed must affect, in the

highest degree, its mercantile interests. But when the revenue itself is made a tool in the hands of a favored class, for the conferring of bounties on manufactures in which they are interested ; or when, in order to raise it, discriminating duties or imposts are laid which overturn the natural laws of trade ; it becomes justly the object of deep observation, both by the merchant and the political economist. No scheme more plausible could have been presented to Louis XIV., when his funds were exhausted by his splendid career of empty triumphs, than that which was brought before him by Colbert, for the raising of a fresh revenue, at the same time that home manufactures were encouraged. A sudden stimulus was given to the looms of Lyons and of Nantes ; and, in a little while, the French capitalist flattered himself that while his wealth was increased by orders from every port in Europe, there was not an article imported within the shores of France which he found it necessary to purchase. By the tariff of 1667, duties were imposed that threw the whole patronage of the nation in the hands of its manufacturers. But the system was hardly in operation, before the natural balance of trade was destroyed ; and the English and Dutch, finding that their commodities were no longer of value in the French market, thought themselves called upon to make French commodities of no value in their own. The Dutch laid an entire embargo on the wines, brandies, and manufactures that came from France. William III., who was doubly incensed with the French for harboring his father-in-law, and for taxing his exports, retaliated with a severity which has been the source of continued bickering between the countries, and more than once the cause of war. A *discriminating* duty of £8 a tun was imposed, in 1693, on French wine, which, in 1697, was raised to £33 a tun. The consequences have been, though we may be anticipating future topics in adverting to them, that the seaports of France, which, in some cases, are nearer the shores of England than those of Ireland herself, and which, in all cases, are commercially more connected with Liverpool, or with Bristol, than they are with Paris, have been thrown, through the “ingenuity” of the restrictive laws of both countries, at such a distance, that the familiar productions which they bear, are more inaccessible than if they were raised in the sands of Africa, or the wilds of the Pacific islands.

It was not without reason that Calonne, when he surveyed the great kingdom which was intrusted to his charge, saw in it the future manufactory from which Europe should be clothed, if not the granary from which it was to be fed. Spread, as they are, under a bright sky and a temperate climate, those broad and fertile plains which have been made the camps of revolutionary armies, or the base on which Napoleon erected those stupendous calculations that overthrew the feeble and threadbare policy on which the old economy was built, might have become, under other circumstances, the scene of triumphs more substantial by far than those which his arms have won. We shall review, when in a succeeding paper we speak of the present condition of the commerce of France, the resources which she now possesses, and the extent to which they are cultivated. We transcribe, at present, a table of her imports and exports, before the revolution, which is collected from Necker’s work on the administration of the finances, and which may be relied on, as giving the most accurate account of the commercial relations of the kingdom at that important period.

Articles of Export in 1787.

Wines,	24,276,000 livres.
Brandy,	14,455,000
Vinegar,	130,000
Made wines and liqueurs,	244,000
Fruits,	1,518,500
Almonds,	850,000
Olive oil,	1,782,000
Corn and grain of all kinds,	9,700,000
Beans, peas, lentils, &c.	949,200
Honey,	644,000
Oxen, sheep, and hogs,	5,074,000
Mules, asses, and horses,	1,400,000
Salt,	2,322,000

It must be remembered, that owing to the severe restrictions under which French manufactures were placed in foreign countries, a large amount of goods passed through the hands of smugglers, without being subject to a registry in the customhouse. It will be seen by a reference to the following statement, that such must have been the case very strongly in relation to those carried into Great Britain. The proportion in which the various countries with which the trade was carried on, participated in it in the year 1787, is thus exhibited :

	Exports.	Imports.
Spain and her colonies,	Ls.44,431,000	Ls.33,343,000
Portugal and her colonies,	\$3,995,000	10,468,000
Italy, Savoy, Switzerland, and Geneva,	78,343,000	82,022,000
England, Scotland, Ireland, and colonies,	37,962,000	63,054,000
Holland and colonies,	46,022,000	\$33,142,000
Germany, Austrian Flanders, Prussia, and Poland,	95,614,000	68,974,000
Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and Hanse towns,	79,851,000	31,648,000
Turkey, and the Barbary powers,	25,609,000	37,725,000
United States of America,	12,607,000	24,539,000*

We can gather, therefore, so far at least as Spain, the Italian states, and Germany are concerned, the actual amount of the foreign trade of France, in the first moment of the revolution. M. Arnould, in a work which is largely quoted by a writer whom we have before us, has analyzed with great sagacity the data which were so copiously afforded by Necker in his various reports, and has produced a view of the commercial condition of the nation at the time, which is worthy of attentive consideration. The exportations in 1787, to all parts of the world, he calculated, amounted to 542,604,000 livres; the importations to 611,003,000 livres: the

* The foregoing statement of the exports and imports of France in the year 1787, is taken from Peucher's great work on French statistics, as abridged by Mr. Taylor—pp. 127, 8, 9. It may be also found, though in an expanded form, both in M. Necker's history of the finances of France, and in his *Compte rendu au Roi*. We have given it as it is, without alteration of nomenclature, because the value which it then conveyed, can be better expressed by a reference to the denominations current at the time, than by a reduction to our own standard.

balance against France being, in consequence, 68,399,000 livres. The amount thus due, and which must have been paid from the bullion of the realm, or its current coin, was much smaller than it had been at previous periods, and, in fact, had been gradually diminished through the increased excellence of the silk manufactures. So great an inequality in trade, combined with the terrible oppression which was produced by the unequal tenures, and the enormous taxes of the kingdom, can go some way to explain the extent of the sufferings of the people who experienced them.

The colonial grandeur of France exists now only in history. Those magnificent conquests, which her merchants and her privateers had achieved on their own resources, were snatched one by one from her when her government assumed them for a heritage. A notice of the resources of the nation before the revolution, would not be complete without a sketch of the colonies that constituted the most lucrative and the most promising among them. A century ago, two thirds of North America was in the hands of the French government. At the south, Louisiana was the base on which were erected those stupendous schemes, which would have covered the continent had they been carried out; while, at the opposite quarter of the horizon, was stretched a country, which had been conquered and peopled exclusively by French colonists and French traders. In Canada and Louisiana were the abutments on which the new system was to rest; and in the vast country that intervened, there were thousands of artificers employed on the structure that was to unite them. Already a series of forts hung around the thread which the Mississippi and its great tributary traced out, shining to the French adventurer, as he travelled over those boundless prairies which bordered on them, as beacons by which his path was to be guided. Xerxes stretched an iron chain across the Hellespont: it was reserved for the genius of Colbert and Henry to extend over the unpeopled wastes of North America, another of far more imposing dimensions. To obtain the exclusive control of the Newfoundland fishery, the northwestern fur trade, and the Mexican gold mines,—to lay the foundation, at the same time, for an empire that should spread over the new world,—was the cardinal measure which dictated the colonial policy of the French government, from the accession of Mazarine to the death of Henry. The fisheries at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, were used as an illustration of the rich prey that was thus to be secured. “We are planting,” might have reasoned Mazarine, “at the foot of the Mississippi, and by the course of the St. Lawrence, the stakes on which hangs the net which shall soon sweep over America. Already, along the shores of those great rivers, may be seen the buoys that mark the swoop which it has taken. The bravest soldiers,—the most hardy pioneers,—stand along its line, to watch it, and to keep fast its moorings. The day is coming, when the king of France, with one hand on its southern base, the other at its northern limit, shall draw it over the face of the continent, till the English colonies are swept away in its meshes.” In the most inaccessible posts of the western territories, there were stationed garrisons who, by their discipline, intimidated the fiercest of the tribes around them, or bought over, through the baubles that formed the medium of exchange, such as could not be intimidated. In those remote countries which are spread between the Mississippi and the Pacific,—in points the most distant from habitation—where the broken skeleton of a buffalo alone, or the blazed patch on which an Indian camp has stood, betray the presence of

mankind,—the hunter sees traces of lofty mounds and wide fortifications, which he can only account for, by dating them back to an era when another race possessed the land. The French colonial establishment, like a precocious child which exhausts its strength in the erection of gigantic playthings, made the valley of the Mississippi the theatre on which its waywardness should be displayed; and drew together from distant quarries, through roads which it required a regiment by itself to construct, those vast blocks which now form its only monument.

The student looks in vain to discover those great cities, which were blazoned out in the old French charts, as the Babylons of the new world. Louisburg, the cathedral city of the church of Rome, the destined capital of the French dominions in America, is reduced to a scanty collection of fishermen's huts; and that spacious harbor, in which rival fleets floated at anchor, and which was the scene of the first great sea-fight between France and England, is disturbed only by fishing-boats from Newfoundland, or whalers from the New England states. Could a poet be found, who could visit the graveyard of nations, and, like Gray, draw out the elegy of those who were interred therein, he would find that, besides the giants of the old world, who arose to their full strength, who passed through the vicissitudes of spring, and fall, and winter, and who sank at last as much from the decrepitude of old age, as the violence of enemies,—there were others who decayed before their manhood was arrived, through the exhaustion of premature exertions, or the sterility of their transplanted soil. Like a plant which is carried to a foreign climate, and there raised under the protection of hot-house growth to an unnatural luxuriance, the French colonies in North America spread their tendrils widely over the soil, and threw forth, in the full excitement of their strength, their roots, till they were checked by the impassable barriers of nature. They had reached the utmost limits of expansion when the war broke out; and suddenly, the nurse who had watched over them withdrew her care, and they were left to battle single-handed against the violence of their enemies. Their scanty resources were soon exhausted, and before long, the whole vitality of the system deserted its extremities, and hedged itself once more within the base from which it sprang.

We have no data by which to estimate the value of the American colonies. Like all others, they sucked from the parent state in their infancy, much more than they returned. That miserable policy that induces the home administration to make use of its colonies as prison-houses for its culprits, went a great way, under Louis XV., to break down the admirable system that had been set up by his predecessor. The usual epidemic, also, that infects settlements in a country where gold has been discovered, prevented the adventurers from employing themselves in any thing else but mining. Could a gold diviner have arisen, who—like the dying father who led his children to a thorough tillage of his garden by a general allusion to treasures hidden in it—could have induced the colonists to make use of their lust for gold for the improvement of the prairies that belonged to them, he might have prevented the decay that followed. The material distinction between the settlements in America and India was, that while in America the native tribes could never be made use of for field or house labor, in India they were speedily converted into the slaves of the newcomers; and were employed at large, in mining, in agriculture, and in bodily service. We have sketched in a former paper the history of the

splendid schemes which were laid down by Dupleix, on the Asiatic peninsula; and the triumphs even still more splendid, by which they were dissipated by Clive, till at last the throne of the British empire was seated on the spot where the cradle of the French had stood. Had Dupleix been possessed of that constitutional bravery which would have enabled him to press, like Clive, single-handed against the masses against him—to battle with a broken regiment against the countless armies of the native chiefs—he might have rode safely over both the stormy waves of his Indian campaigns, and the hidden rocks upon which the treachery of the home administration led him. But it was his misfortune, that while his breast was filled with ambition which could never rest till its course was fulfilled, and with ability enough to conceive plans which could meet his most daring expectations, he was deficient in the personal intrepidity which could make him the fit instrument to effect them. He required a banditti chief, who might fill the inferior machinery of his office, and bully the Indian princes into their accustomed allegiance, or drive Clive, at the point of the bayonet, behind his trenches. Dupleix returned home in 1754, to meet the ignorant reproaches of a ministry who visited upon his head the repulses which their own imbecility had courted. Louis XV. found at the close of his reign, that of those great colonial possessions which his predecessor bequeathed to him, there remained but a few distant islands, whom it would require the undivided attention of his navy to keep in remembrance of their fealty.

There are no official statements by which we can compute the value of the colonial trade, at the time when its extent was greatest. The French East India Company collected year after year an immense income, which gave the fortunes of princes to the merchants whom it comprised. In 1788, when by far the greater part of the trade had been cut off by war, and the weak concessions of the crown, the importations of cotton goods from Coromandel, in which alone, of all their former possessions, the French retained a footing, amounted to six millions of francs. According to the treatise of M. Page, there were employed in the trade with the American colonies in 1788, 677 vessels, measuring 190,753 tons, carrying out in produce or manufactures to the amount of 76,786,000 francs; and 105 vessels, measuring 35,227 tons, carrying negroes to the amount of 30,087, sold for 43,835,000 francs. The total amount of the returns direct to France was 218,511,000 francs, in colonial commodities. But we must remember that at the time the computation was made, those great provinces on the continent of America which were then ripening into value, had been torn from the French domains. The islands of St. Domingo, Martinico, Guadeloupe, Tobago, and Guiana, were the last possessions which remained to Louis XV. in a hemisphere of which at least one half, according to the computation we are now enabled to make, was passed to him by his ancestor. We have here the secret of the great decrease of the revenues and commerce of France, at the time when Necker was called to office. St. Domingo itself, the most powerful of the colonies that remained, was taking measures for revolt. The few islands that remained, were too small to be the seat of an extended trade, and too unwholesome to be the asylum of any but state criminals. Those vast cargoes of manufactured goods, which were at one time annually shipped to meet the wants of the colonists, had been superseded by the cheaper supplies which, as independent states, they could obtain from other countries, or which, as the subjects of

Great Britain, they were forced to take from her looms. It was not so much for the want of sugar, of coffee, of tobacco, that arose from the loss of her colonial possessions, that France suffered ; as in the sudden and extended check that was given to her trade and her manufactures.*

It was not to be expected that a dynasty which had found far ampler means insufficient to feed its ambition and extravagance, should have been satisfied with an income which was little more than one half of that to which it had been accustomed. We shall consider, in the first place, the administration of the finances under Louis XIV. and his successor, so far as it is concerned with the subject which we have generally placed before us ; and secondly, the character of the expenditures in which the crown was involved, and which became, from their great disproportion to the means of defraying them, the cause both of those daring usurpations which were levelled by Louis XV. against the parliament and the provincial authorities, and of those broad concessions which, under the milder reign of his successor, served only to give a vantage ground to the revolutionary spirit afloat. "I am accountable to God alone," said the king of France before she was revolutionized, as he marched with whip and spur into the parliament, when it had refused to register his edicts. It was on the theory of the completeness of the royal authority, that he maintained his entire independence over the laws of the realm, and his entire command over its finances. The collection of the revenue before the revolution, was in part vested in the hands of officers appointed directly by the crown, in part farmed out to those who could promise to perform its requisitions with the greatest advantage to the state. The taxes on consumption, including, according to the *Conversations-Lexicon*, the monopoly on salt and tobacco, the internal customs, the excise of the city of Paris, and the tax on liquors in the country, were farmed out in all cases. It is stated by the anonymous author of the *Life of Louis XV.*, that at least thirty per cent of the original value of the taxes as received, was lost before they reached the royal treasury ; and so great became the avarice and the success of the farmers general, that they collected among themselves an income more than equal to the whole of the civil list of the crown. Necker concedes, in his official statement, that the average loss incurred in the collection of the revenue which was in the hands of the farmers general exceeded $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, while $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent would cover the costs which were suffered by that which was levied under officers of the crown. It had been customary in ruder periods for the king, when he wished to raise a particular sum, to pledge to those who lent it to him certain specified sources of revenue.

* The amount of the produce of the French settlement of Saint Domingo alone, in 1780, is estimated in the following table. It should be remembered that under the colonial system its ports were entirely under the command of the French government, and that they swallowed up the whole profits of its trade. The loss that accrued by the revolt of that great country from the crown, was, commercially speaking, the most serious of those which it had met with in its foreign possessions.

Sugar, refined and raw,	163,495,500	pounds weight	.	.	.	76,800,583	francs.
Coffee,	68,151,000	do do	.	.	.	38,712,480	do
Cotton,	6,289,000	do do	.	.	.	12,578,000	do
Indigo,	930,000	do do	.	.	.	8,081,700	do
Cocoa,	150,000	do do	.	.	.	111,000	do
Syrup,	34,453,000	do do	.	.	.	2,067,000	do
Turtle shell,	5,500	do do	.	.	.	66,000	do
Hides,	13,000	do do	.	.	.	285,000	do
Dye and other woods,	1,800,000	do do	.	.	.	225,000	do

out of which they were to satisfy the interest of the debt, until its principal was discharged. The creditor was able to make what he could out of the pledge, as he often was obliged to depend upon it as the sole source of his repayment; and the consequence was, that taxes which were then made over, were pressed to their utmost, in order to guaranty their holder from the contingency of a loss. Madame du Barri was rewarded for her complaisance by the mortgage of some of the most lucrative offices of the crown, and it may be imagined that they were not suffered to run to seed in the hands of the subalterns of her palace. There were 25,000 persons, according to Necker, who were engaged in farming the revenue, and sucking from it as much as possibly could be taken, without destroying its stream altogether.

It was from the dishonesty of the collectors, therefore, as well as from the extravagance of the crown, that the impositions became so enormous. There is no doubt, also, that from the inequality of the tenures, taxes which might otherwise have been easily encountered, became absolutely insupportable. The nobles being discharged from the principal impositions, and nobility being easily purchased by those who were rich enough to pay for it, the burden fell in a great measure upon those who were the most unable to bear it. Two thirds of the lands in the kingdom were exonerated through the rank of their owners, leaving only one third in the possession of the small proprietors, or of such capitalists as were not ranked among the privileged classes. The total amount of the land taxes was 210,000,000 livres, of which the third estate, though they owned only one third of the land, were made liable for at least three fourths. They were subjected exclusively, also, to the *corvées*, or the obligations to construct and repair those magnificent roads which traversed the whole of France, and to which they were dragged, whenever the schemes of the government required it, to work like galley slaves, without their consent and without remuneration. They were not only made the source from which the army was to be enlisted, but the objects upon which it was to be quartered, since by law their houses were to be opened and their barns emptied for the military who should be in want of shelter or food.

It is in the *gabelle*, or salt tax, however, that we can find the most fit illustration of the oppression of the old economy. Of the eighty millions of francs that were received by the agents of the farmers general, twenty millions at least were expended in the support of the collectors themselves, of the spies whom they employed to detect, and of the military to punish smuggling. The original value of a hundred weight of salt was 1½ livre, and for such it could have been generally sold throughout the kingdom. By the imposition of the salt tax, its market price was raised to 62 livres. By smuggling a pocket full of salt, therefore, from Brittany to Maine or Anjou, a sum equal to a day's wages could be procured, and smuggling became so profitable, that on an average, five hundred offenders against the revenue laws were sent annually to the galleys. There was not an article of food or of clothing, however common or however necessary, that did not fall under the supervision of the government: after having been loaded with taxes till it approached in value to the highest luxuries, it was cast out again to the people who required it. "If it is asked," said Madame de Staël, "why the lower classes became so cruel during the revolution, no other cause need be assigned than that poverty and misery had produced a moral corruption."

It was through the scandalous licentiousness of the court that the wounds which its extravagance created, were inflamed till they became insufferable. The French people showed, by the patient fortitude with which they bore burdens still greater under the republic or the empire, that the efforts which they could make for their national liberties, or the sacrifices which they could offer to the ambition of an emperor, could be met without exhaustion, when the patient would have winced and rebelled against far slighter inflictions under the dynasty of the Bourbons. They were willing to be spurred on to the fields of Austria, or the wastes of Central Russia, to throw down their life in fulfilling the terrible course that had been marked out by their chief; but their nature revolted against the monotonous servitude in which they were placed under the old regime. Like show-horses in the ancient amphitheatres, they were driven round and round the narrow ring by which the sphere of their existence was described, while on their backs were perched the puppets and creatures of the court, who showed forth for the amusement of royalty the most grotesque and the most wearisome antics. We have heard of violent corrosive acids being cast into fish-ponds, in order to display to the amusement of the experimenters the contortions of the creatures on whom they were to operate. With a cruelty still more barbarous, since its victims were of a higher grade, the later ministers of Louis XV. exhibited, for the gratification of their lord, spectacles which assumed for their theatre the kingdom itself, and which, from the number and the earnestness of their performers, were necessarily unrivalled. We are told that on the recovery of the Dauphin from a dangerous illness, which had bid fair to cut off the succession to the crown, Madame Pompadour signalized her gratitude by a display which swallowed up the whole of the revenue which had, during the past year, been levied through the enormous tax on salt to which we have alluded. In the grounds of the castle of Belle-vue, which was the scene of her courtly errors, an artificial lake was constructed, which was surrounded by a basin of rocks which had been carried from distant mountains, at an expense which was only made supportable by the fact that the neighboring peasants were obliged to assist without pay in their transportation. A *dolphin*—which, as its name in French is the same with that of the *Dauphin* himself, was meant to represent him allegorically, though we cannot but think that a more worthy emblem could have been found for the prince royal—was planted in the midst of the water, on a pedestal which lifted it entirely out of its element. While in that position, a number of monsters, all of them built on the most mythological models, and all of them moved by the court pages, advanced to attack it; and as they were illuminated by lamps inside of their frames, and as those who were in them spouted fire-works from their mouths, they presented a spectacle which was as ludicrous to those in a distance, as it was perilous to those engaged. But Apollo, who was sitting on a cloud at some distance, became alarmed at the danger of his royal favorite, and descended in a chariot, with such a full supply of firebrands and thunderbolts, that he consumed in a little while, not only the monsters themselves, but all that was inside of them. We do not wish to speak lightly of a catastrophe so serious, but as from the courtly description which is given of the festival by the author by whom it is recorded, it is difficult to discover to what extent the prodigality of human life was carried, we are willing to suppose, that in accordance with the penal laws by which such exhibitions are governed, none but con-

damned criminals were exposed to the wrath of Apollo's darts. It is said that the Dauphin was by no means gratified by the compliment, and refused to participate in the celebration by which it was concluded.

We might cite, would it not be inconsistent with our design, the historian of Louis XV. still further, as a witness not only of the immorality of the court, but of the reckless profuseness of its expenditures.* We have no intention of enumerating the series of unsuccessful wars, of costly embassies, of wild extravagancies, through which the reigns of the last of the Bourbons are stamped as the most oppressive, as well as the most profligate, in history. That great heritage which was transmitted by Henry IV. had been mutilated and exhausted by his successors. For a short period, under the consummate genius of Richelieu, and the supple completeness by which his leading maxims were adopted by Mazarine, the ancient policy of the monarchy was revived; but the career of Louis XIV. was checked when his ministers were taken from him, and he fell to the earth with a blow from whose force he never recovered. He succeeded, by an immense expenditure of blood and treasure, in securing for his grandson the disputed Spanish succession, but he found that the young king lost his French allegiance when he mounted the Spanish throne, and that before a great while he was himself engaged in hostilities with the power which he had helped to create. Louis XIV. left a debt of four thousand five hundred millions livres to be liquidated by his successor, and as

* In proportion as the distress of the people increased, the king's extravagance expanded. The pressure on the lower classes acted as a forcing pump on the spirits of the court, and raised them to a height that was positively indecent. No less than thirty thousand horses were employed in the equipage that was to meet the young dauphiness. A multitude of upholsterers were sent express from town to town, to ornament the villages through which the princess should pass, and to wring from the neighboring peasantry the little means which they possessed, for the decoration of triumphal arches, and the arrangement of extended illuminations. The oil which had been laid up for the approaching season was burnt up in one night's display; and when natural flowers could not be found to decorate the garlands for the approaching cavalcade, the kitchen gardens of the poor were rooted up to make good the deficiency. The flower-pot in the fire-works in Paris, which formed but a small part of the display with which the dauphiness was greeted, cost four thousand louis; and "we know," says the court memoir writer, "that a flower-pot goes off in a moment."

"France is in her honey-moon," said the strangers, as the provisions which had been laid up for the support of a year to come, were stewed down, and concentrated into costly jellies, to amuse their palate. The hive had been stormed, and its contents rifled, while its inhabitants were driven out by fire and smoke, to seek in the frozen fields fresh food for the winter. Behind that splendid vision that was looked upon by Burke at Versailles, sixteen years before the consummation of the revolution, there lurked distress that its gay mask could scarcely cover. At the moment that the dauphiness was at Versailles, in the centre of those magnificent spectacles that signalized her marriage, there was a riot at Besancon and at Tours, which was followed by the proclamation of martial law. In the counties of la Marche and the Limousin, four thousand of the citizens perished through starvation. There was a pamphlet published at the time, which may be likened in its popularity to Dean Swift's "proposals for eating Irish children in case of famine." It was entitled, "A singular idea of a good citizen, concerning the public festivals which are intended to be exhibited at Paris, and at court, upon occasion of the Dauphin's nuptials." After enumerating the costs of the entertainments, spectacles, fire-works, illuminations, and balls, whose cost would exceed twenty millions of francs, he proposed that they should be passed over for the time, and that the same amount should be deducted from the land tax. Had the plan been adopted, the wedding might have been less splendid, but that fearful tragedy that followed it would have been spared

his successor was an infant of seven years old, it was placed under the nursing protection of a regency, who, if by the most iniquitous scheme of finance on record they managed to shift a good part of it on the shoulders of the people themselves, augmented in a ten-fold degree the actual poverty of the kingdom. The prudent and peaceful administration of Cardinal Fleury succeeded in replenishing for a time the royal coffers; but the improved condition in which he left the treasury, was only the signal for a fresh war, and for fresh expenditures. In the war of the Polish election, by which the king endeavored to replace his father-in-law on the throne from which he had once been driven, in the war against Austria in 1740, and in the war in favor of Austria in 1756, the ancient policy of the throne was overturned, and a system established, which, while it degraded the character, sucked out the resources of the state.

We do not wonder that Necker found himself unable to compute the channels through which the revenue, under Louis XV., was expended. Making allowance for the great appropriations which were necessary to support the wars in which France was engaged, and for the habitual expenses, also, of a court that set no bounds to its pleasures, there were sums amounting in whole to one fourth of the actual revenue of the kingdom, for which no outlet could be found. We might go further than the limit which was raised by the habitual prudence of the financier, and find in the extraordinary waste of the collected revenue of the state, the most striking illustration of the evils of the system that produced it. It is in France, before the revolution, that we can discover most perfectly the working of an absolute government; and if we wish to inquire in what way, under such an economy, the interests of trade would prosper, we will find ourselves enabled, by the history of that great country, to unravel the problem before us. We have no wish to underrate the character of the Bourbon dynasty. To promote the grandeur of their house was their cardinal object; and as France was their heritage, its prosperity was in a great measure bound up with their own. In Louis XIV. may be seen in full development the features that distinguished his family, from the last crusade of his sainted predecessor, to the period when the revolution broke off the chain of descent. He breathed from his childhood the atmosphere of etiquette, and, pervaded by the sentiments of all around him, it became his highest ambition to be the master of ceremonies in that great drawing-room in which the sovereigns of Europe were collected. To become the oracle through which the conventionalities of courts should be decided, was the point to which his exertions were directed, when he stepped into unshackled possession of his crown. But it would be doing injustice to Louis XIV. to stop here. It had been his good fortune to be placed under a minister from whom he could gather a code of policy which was exquisitely adapted to the purpose of lifting France, through the intricacy of diplomatic arrangements, to the chief place among the European nations. The young prince found himself, when he arrived at his majority, in a throne that gave him not only absolute control over the largest country in Europe, but a general supervision over the destinies of the continent itself. He became fully sensible of the loftiness of the part he was to play. Through the ambitious policy of the queen mother his education had been very much neglected; and unacquainted, therefore, with the essential character of the duties he was to perform, unversed in the past history of his kingdom, he supposed that the maintenance of the ancient grandeur

of the state could be achieved by the preservation of the outward dignity of his rank. Had his retinue been enfeebled by the desertion of his retainers, or his income diminished by their carelessness, he would have felt his claim to supremacy weakened; and his pride, therefore, was enlisted in maintaining to their full extent the prerogatives of his station. Like a nobleman who feels desirous, when he rides to some great state celebration, that his pannels should be unspotted by reproach and his attendants robust and well accoutred, the young king left no exertion untried, to raise his equipage to a pitch that should be suitable to his position. His attention was turned, therefore, to the stables and granaries of his kingdom, from whence his wants were to be satisfied. The luxuries of his table could only be supplied from the natural productions of the realm, or through the commercial enterprise of its merchants; and he felt that his princely hospitality must close, if the artisans and the mariners of the land should cease to work. It would have been a difficult matter for a man of ordinary apprehension to have remained blind to the conviction that his personal grandeur must depend upon the commercial resources of his kingdom; and Louis XIV. acquiesced with entire sincerity, before he had well emerged from his minority, in the plans which his ministers had laid down for the protection of the industry of the state.

The interests of trade, however, never thrive so well as when they are let alone; and however successful the severe restrictions which were thrown upon French commerce may have been in raising, for a time, the value of domestic manufactures, it was soon found that the foreign demand for wines and silks fell off in proportion as the importation of foreign productions was discouraged. No government can, by legislation, direct the merchant where he can sell dearly and buy cheaply, as well as his own immediate experience of the shifting wants of the market; and Louis XIV., by meddling in the delicate machinery of the commerce of his realm, disarranged it through the means he used to put it into order. We have heard of a noble philosopher who imported, at a vast expense, a company of beavers, whom he established on a stream of his estate, that he might not only discover the remote laws by which their labors were conducted, but that he might assist them, if necessary, by the deductions of human science. If an arch had been raised upon principles not quite philosophical, he would order it to be torn down, and another, on the exact model of the catenary curve, erected in its place. The immediate consequence was, that the untaught artificers, after struggling for a little while against the innovations of their protector, deserted in despair their dykes, and gave up all attempts to live in the manner for which nature had not adapted them. The experience which was reaped by the speculatist we have cited, might have been useful to the king of France, had he applied it to the system of parental control which he was erecting over the commercial interests of his subjects. The natural course of trade was checked and destroyed by the false tunnels and aqueducts through which he led it. Those vast and natural channels through which the stream had run, and which it had carved out for itself in its first necessity, were blockaded; and the country was hedged in by customhouses, and swarmed by excisemen, till the old circulation was entirely destroyed. If there was a manufactory for woollen goods established in Lyons, which found that the stuff it produced was underbid a hundred per cent by British commodities, a representation of the fact would be sent to the king in Paris, who lost no

opportunity of raising a profitable revenue by acquiescing in the demands of the Lyons manufacturer. We shall reserve for a future period the general consideration of the paralyzing influence which the system thus established bore upon the future prosperity of the state : it may be sufficient to remark at present, that through the severe restrictions which were laid on foreign importations, the consuming classes, in the first place, were obliged to pay in an increased degree for whatever was gained by the manufacturers through the increased value of their goods in the market ; the protected interests themselves, in the second place, were subject to violent and ruinous fluctuations, as it became the policy of the government to lighten or increase the taxes on the goods which they supplanted ; the course of commerce, in the third place, through the non-importation of foreign goods, was checked so far, that the demand for domestic productions, with which those goods would have been exchanged, was stopped ; while, fourthly, the countries whose staples were thus excluded from the French market, sought to retaliate by excluding the staples of France from their own. The positions which we have taken may be illustrated by a brief sketch of the protective measures which were adopted under the ministry of Colbert, and of the measures with which they were met. By the tariff of 1667, a series of duties was laid upon English and Dutch manufactures, so heavy as to put a stop to all importation of them that was not effected by smuggling. The Dutch determined to be in no way behindhand ; and as they were only indebted to France for luxuries, while France had obtained from them some of the most useful articles of consumption, they succeeded, by entirely prohibiting the introduction of wine, brandy, and silk, in wreaking a severe revenge. A war of eight years length was the consequence ; at the end of which, as the French manufacturers had become generally bankrupt, the laws in their favor were mitigated by the treaty of Nimeguen, to an extent sufficient to induce the Dutch to take off part of their duties on wines and brandies. Holland possessed at the time one half the carrying-trade of the world ; her demands for herself and her colonies were immense ; she had been the best customer of France before the tariff of 1667 ; and yet, by a single proclamation, issued for the avowed purpose of encouraging the manufactures of Lyons and Bordeaux, an entire embargo was laid between the two countries, which was only moderated after a destructive war had broken the resources of both. But it was not the war alone that destroyed the manufactures of the French nation. Those great staples, which their vineyards and their looms produced, had been much more than sufficient for their own consumption ; and by exchanging what was of no use to them for the productions of other countries for which they had need, they enriched themselves without expense and without exhaustion. The day's labor of a peasant in the south of France, or of the manufacturer in her centre, was enough to clothe him in the cheap goods of England and Holland for the approaching season. What the French paid for English manufactures was, in fact, to them of no value ; they could drink but a certain quantity of wine during the year, or wear but a certain quantity of silk, and what remained would have been trodden down as chaff, had it not found a market in the neighboring countries. But Colbert argued that whatever went into the hands of the English or Dutch, went out of the pockets of the French themselves ; and, in order to prevent a rapid impoverishment of the nation, he laid such heavy duties upon whatever the

English or Dutch could produce, as effectually prevented their being sold at all. His restrictive policy, while it augmented, for a time, the revenues of the crown, and gave a temporary flush to manufactures, became, in the long-run, most ruinous to the interests of both. We pass over the damage which was suffered by commerce itself. That, of course, was destroyed, except so far as occasionally a smuggler renewed it; because the spirit of commerce is reciprocity, and when that comes to an end, the system itself must fall. But in what way, we ask, were the manufactures of France affected by the heavy protections that were laid over them? The very means by which they were protected diminished the power of the consumers to buy them; and in the same degree that the favored articles rose in price, in that degree they decreased in consumption. At the era of the revolution, those great establishments to which a sudden and unnatural excitement had been given by the forcing measures of Louis XIV., were deserted by their workmen; while the art which placed their looms in motion, had been forgotten by the artificers who moved them. Like flowers that have been produced by the artificial warmth of the hot-bed to an unnatural luxuriance, they were unable to sustain the stimulating soil in which they were placed, and shrank back, after a little while, into entire inefficiency.

We propose, at future periods, to carry out the scheme we have entered upon, by giving a rapid view of the commercial condition of France under the administration of Necker; under the revolutionary and constitutional establishments; under the empire; and, finally, under the monarchy since the restoration. We are sensible that the plan is one of great difficulty; but we hope that the difficulty itself arises from the importance of the subject. The fate of nations, according to mythology, was hung on a golden thread; it might be said, that on the mercantile resources of a country—on its means for carrying on war and enjoying peace—depends its ultimate prosperity. Such, certainly, has been the case with the empire whose history we have taken up for consideration. Like a man whose mind has outrun his physical strength, it found itself incapable, during its ancient economy, of supporting, by its ordinary revenues, those immense campaigns in which it was engaged. By ruinous stimulants, that, while they increased the immediate effect of the blow, exhausted the vigor that produced it; by convulsive struggles, that knit up the frame for a sudden effort, and left it prostrated by the shock; the rulers of France succeeded in bringing her up to the most gigantic labors, which, could they have been properly followed up, would have secured to her the supremacy of Europe. Instead of that gradual motion in which nations alone can move with safety,—which, like that of the wheel and axle, compensates for its slowness by its ultimate effect,—they forced her into violent and sudden exertions, which lost all their virtue, based as they were on the contrary principles of mechanics, as soon as the blow to which they had been concentrated was struck. But there is a point at which the most pungent stimulants will cease to excite, when the functions will refuse to perform their office, and the system will revolt against further impositions; it was to such a condition that France was reduced at the accession of Louis XVI. Perhaps the trifling reforms that were attempted at the commencement of his reign, may have given the nation more strength to throw off the load upon them. We confess, that after a due consideration of the state of the lowest classes in our own country, and of what they appear to have been

in the ancient world, we can discover none more wretched than the peasants under the old dynasty of France. They were slaves, without that exoneration from self-support which slavery gives; and they were free-men, without any of the privileges of freedom but that of gathering, through the severest labor, the most scanty materials for subsistence. It was through a revolution alone that the unequal tenures that kept the people from an absolute ownership of the soil—the oppressive taxes, that threw upon them the entire support of the state—and the extravagant government, that doubled their burdens while it took from them the means of bearing them,—it was only through a revolution, in fact, that the evils of the old economy—fastened as it had been on the social existence of the kingdom, and woven in its civil constitution—could be thoroughly eradicated. If we inquire why it was that the revolution, instead of being accomplished peacefully and wisely, was hurried forward with the velocity and madness of a whirlwind,—licking from the earth the imperfect traces of prosperity it found there,—mingling in its eddies the rafters of the peasant's hut with the architraves of the noble's palace;—we may answer, in paraphrase of the words of Madame de Staël which we have already quoted, that the spirit that rode on its wings had been for ages condensed into a limit so close, that when its bonds were loosened, it rushed forth with the elastic vigor which its sudden release had given it.

ART. II.—AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

It is the design of the present article to trace a brief sketch of the progress, and to exhibit the present condition of the manufactures of the United States. The subject has grown to such magnitude as a national interest, so far as the amount of pecuniary value which is invested in its enterprises is concerned, and it is so important as connected with the large number of its active agents, and, moreover, as it will shortly come up before the national legislature as a broad question of national policy, the facts connected with its advance and present actual position should, we think, be widely diffused and strongly fixed in the public mind. Its operations, and in consequence its influence, extend throughout the greater portion of the country. The sound of manufacturing labor, with its ten thousand arms, and in innumerable forms, is echoing in the crowded marts and upon the hill-sides of most of our older states; and it is an important question to those before whom the policy which shall govern it will be presented for final judgment, what have been the causes which have marked its progress, and what is its present state?

In the first place, we shall consider the condition of American manufactures while our country continued colonies of the British crown. It can hardly be supposed that the feeble settlements which were scattered at wide intervals over the greater portion of the Atlantic states, could have devoted much of their time to manufacturing industry. Employed, mainly, in laying the foundations of a new social system in dense forests, which, excepting at a few points where clearings had been made, were slumbering in their primeval solitude and grandeur, it is evident that with-

out the resources of wealth their time must have been, in great measure, filled up in procuring the means of subsistence from the soil, and in protecting themselves against the attacks of many of the Indian tribes, who, it is well known, regarded them as trespassers upon the Indian territory. Agriculture, then, was the natural and primary pursuit which was followed by the settlers, and at first but little attention was devoted to manufactures, which must always spring up as a secondary interest, and at a time when a basis is laid in the cultivation of the earth. Nor could it have been expected to grow to any considerable extent, especially when the parent country, provided with ample means and motives, had already advanced to so great perfection in that respect. But notwithstanding the obstacles presented by the facts which we have mentioned, we find the hardy colonists of New England early engaged in the manufacture of coarse woollens for their own use; and here was first exhibited that jealousy with which Great Britain has ever regarded the progress of every species of manufactures that might, in any mode, compete with her own. In order to nip the manufacturing interest of this country in the bud, we find the British parliament, as early as 1699, declaring that "no wool, yarn, or woollen manufactures of their American plantations should be shipped there, or ever laden in order to be transported from thence to any place whatever;" and twenty years afterward, in 1719, the house of commons enacting that "the erecting manufactories in the colonies tended to lessen their dependence upon Great Britain."

The policy of the parent government, which was afterward so signally exhibited in those causes which ripened the American revolution, was not slow in displaying itself. Accounts were carried to the mother country that the colonists, who at this period began to exhibit the germ of that enterprise which has since been the prominent feature of the country, were not only carrying on trade, but also setting up manufactures detrimental to Great Britain; and, in consequence of these reports, an order was issued by the house of commons requiring the board of trade to report with respect to laws made, manufactures set up, or trade carried on, detrimental to the trade, navigation, or manufactures of Great Britain. This act, designed to cripple the growing power of the infant colonies, was faithfully executed, and a report was made by the board of trade in 1732, which, although probably not accurate, contains the best account of the condition of American manufactures at that period. This report stated that a law had been passed in the colony of Massachusetts Bay to encourage the manufacture of paper, which act tended to diminish the profits made by the British importer of that article; that in "New England," New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, woollen and linen cloth were manufactured to some extent for domestic use, and that the product of those colonies being chiefly cattle and grain, with a quantity of sheep, the wool would be lost were it not used for that purpose. It was also reported that flax and hemp were produced in the colonies to a considerable extent, which were manufactured into a coarse sort of cloth, as well as bags, traces, and halters for their horses, that were more serviceable than those that were imported from abroad; yet, from the high price of labor here, the manufacture of linen could not be carried on at less than twenty per cent, and that of woollens than at fifty per cent less than the cost of the English fabrics.* The returns from the English governor of

* Pitkin's Statistics.

New Hampshire alleged that there were no manufactures in that province, excepting a little linen made by its emigrants from Ireland, but that the principal trade was in lumber and fish. Massachusetts, at that time, also manufactured a coarse cloth from their flax and wool, but the merchants could import the foreign fabrics at a cheaper rate than they could purchase those which were made at home. A few hatmakers worked at their trades in the towns of that state, but none of their articles were exported. The leather of this province was also wrought by the people; and although iron was worked to some extent, it was deemed inferior to that which was imported from Great Britain, this being considered much the best, as it was wholly used in shipping. The same report stated that all the iron works within its bounds did not make one twentieth part of the amount required for its consumption. Nor did New York at that time exhibit the degree of manufacturing enterprise which was deemed detrimental to Great Britain—provisions, furs, whalebone, pitch, oil, and tar, constituting the principal portion of its trade. That of New Jersey was no more formidable in this respect, as its traffic consisted of necessary articles shipped from Pennsylvania and New York. To these articles may be added, a little linen and cotton cloth, brown holland, “for women’s wear,” a paper-mill that manufactured to the amount of £200 yearly, in the province of Massachusetts Bay, besides six furnaces and nineteen forges for making iron, that had then been constructed in New England. In Rhode Island there were no manufactures returned; and the province of Connecticut produced timber and boards, all sorts of English grain, hemp, flax, sheep, black cattle and swine, goats, horses, and tobacco. The manufactures in this colony were inconsiderable, the greater portion of the people being engaged in tillage, while others were employed in the various handicrafts, such as tanning and shoemaking, in building, joining, tailors and smiths’ work. At this period the colony of New York was enabled to pay for the foreign fabrics imported from Great Britain, by being permitted to exchange their provisions, and those of New Jersey, as also horses and lumber, with the foreign sugar colonies, for money, rum, molasses, cocoa, indigo, cotton, and wool. Horses and lumber were exported from Connecticut in return for sugar, molasses, salt, and ardent spirits. In Pennsylvania brigantines and small sloops were built, which they sold to the West Indies, and “the surveyor-general of his majesty’s woods” states, that in the province of New England many ships were built for the French and Spaniards in exchange for rum, molasses, wines, and silks, which “they truck there by contrivance.”*

Such was the condition of American manufactures when the United States were humble colonies of the parent government, and such the policy of the mother country in 1732; a policy which resulted in a recommendation of the board “to give these colonies proper encouragement for turning their industry to such manufactures and products as might be of service to Great Britain, and more particularly to the production of all kinds of naval stores.”

Immediately upon this event acts were passed by the British parliament, designed to prevent the progress of the colonial manufacture; and from the information which had been received, that hats were made to a considerable extent in these colonies, it was provided, by statute passed in

* See Macpherson’s *Annals of Commerce*.

1732, that no hats should be exported ; the same act limiting the number of apprentices who were to be engaged in this business, and prohibiting the exportation of hats from one British plantation to another, as well as the manufacture of hats, excepting by those who had served an apprenticeship of seven years, and forbidding any black or negro from making hats at all.* The manufacture of iron was also regarded with equal jealousy ; and although the colonies were permitted, by a law that was enacted in 1750, to import pig and bar iron into Great Britain free of duty, its sole design was that they might thus be enabled to monopolize its *manufacture* ; and all establishments for that object erected in the colonies, were deemed a "*common nuisance*," and were required to be abated within thirty days after the evidence of their existence should be adduced, under a penalty of £500. These acts were justly deemed by the American colonists usurpations of their rights ; for why, said they, ought not the manufacturers of this country have been permitted the same privileges as the same classes in England ? Thus matters continued until the American revolution—the colonies struggling against the exactions of the British crown ; and it has been alleged that this systematic policy, connected with the colonial trade, tended to ripen that event. When the war came, it was reasonable to suppose, what was in fact the case, that our own country should augment not only the manufacture of all articles required for domestic use, but also those which were found necessary for defence ; and at the peace of 1783, although efforts were made to extend the manufactures of the country, little appears to have been done in this respect, from a want of unanimity in the several states, as well as the want of power under the old confederation.†

Mr. Jefferson, in his "Notes on the State of Virginia," alluding to the manufactures and commerce of that state in 1781, remarks : "We never had any interior trade of any importance ; our exterior commerce has suffered very much from the beginning of the present contest. During this time we have manufactured, within our families, the most necessary articles of clothing. Those of cotton will bear some comparison with the same kinds of manufacture in Europe, but those of wool, flax, and hemp, are very coarse, unsightly, and unpleasant ; and such is our attachment to agriculture, and such our preference for foreign manufactures, that be it wise or unwise, our people will certainly return, as soon as they can, to the raising raw materials, and exchanging them for finer manufactures than they are able to execute themselves." In regard to its exports, he says : "In the year 1758, we exported seventy thousand hogsheads of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in

* Lord Brougham, in the first volume of his "Inquiry into the Colonial Policy of the European Powers," a work published in Edinburgh in 1803, remarks : "The hat manufacture of New England was an object of jealousy to the British legislature. It is absurd to suppose that any laws could have prevented the colonists from making hats even for the use of the neighboring settlements, so long as it continued to be very convenient and profitable. But in a very short time the manufacture disappeared, even in so far as it was permitted ; and now, without any laws whatever, Great Britain supplies the United States with this article to a much greater extent than ever she did during the existence of the colonial government." This statement is probably inaccurate ; but if true, it is well known that the fact no longer exists.

† Pitkin's Statistics.

one year. But its culture was fast declining at the commencement of this year, and that of wheat taking its place, and it must continue to decline on the return of peace." The succeeding table from Mr. Jefferson's computation, indicates the annual amount of exportation from that state during the period in which he wrote :

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	Price in Dollars.	Amount in Dollars.
Tobacco,	55,000 hhds. 1000lb.	at 30d. per hhd.	1,650,000
Wheat,	800,000 bush.	at $\frac{4}{5}$ d. per bush.	666,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Indian corn,	600,000 bush.	at $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bush.	200,000
Shipping,	100,000
Masts, planks, scantling, shingles, and staves,	66,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Tar, pitch, turpentine, Peltry, viz. skins of deer, beavers, otters, muskrats, raccoons, foxes, . . .	30,000 barrels	at 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per bar.	40,000
Pork,	180 hhds. 600lb.	at $\frac{4}{12}$ d. per lb.	42,000
Flaxseed, hemp, cotton,	4,000 barrels	at 10d. per bar.	40,000
Pit coal, pig iron,	8,000
Peas,	6,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Beef,	5,000 bush.	at $\frac{2}{3}$ d. per bush.	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Sturgeon, white, shad, herring,	1,000 barrels	at 3 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per. bar.	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Brandy from peaches and apples, and whiskey,	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Horses,	1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
			1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$ *

Upon the establishment of the constitution new energy was infused into the government, and the attention of the prominent statesmen of the country was directed to the establishment of a fixed policy, not only in regard to our commerce, but the manufactures of the nation. In July of 1789, a law was passed for the "encouragement and protection of manufactures;" and although the question of the measure of that protection appears to have divided the public mind, the absolute importance of protecting our manufactures in some mode was clearly avowed. The pressing urgency of the interest, and the direction of the public mind to the subject, resulted in the full conviction that some systematic course of legislation should be adopted regarding it; and this conviction resulted in the very able report which was made by Alexander Hamilton, the first secretary of the treasury, which was communicated to congress in 1791. The financial talents of that great man,—with a mind equally profound and comprehensive, severe, acute, and far-reaching—equally adapted to grapple with great principles which lie at the foundation of the political system, and looking back to the past and forward to the future, to analyze the most minute

* See Notes on the State of Virginia, by Thomas Jefferson, p. 277.

point, and to detect error in any of its details, if error existed,—were brought to bear upon this great subject. In that report General Hamilton collated the principal facts connected with this interest; exhibited the amount and kind of the manufactures existing in the country at that period; showed the commercial causes which would most directly bear upon the various sorts of our production; examined, weighed, and answered the objections which were then already made to the protective system and in favor of free trade, and showed the productive capacities and the various products of the country which he deemed required protection; and, finally, recommended such duties and bounties as were deemed calculated to advance the prosperity of the American manufacturer. In that report he laid the foundation of what has been termed the “American System,” by his attempt to show that the protection of the manufacturing interest would tend indirectly to advance the other great interests of the nation. In the course of that report he remarked: “But there are more particular considerations which serve to fortify the idea that the encouragement of manufactures is the interest of all parts of the Union. If the northern and middle states should be the principal scenes of such establishments, they would immediately benefit the more southern by creating a demand for productions, some of which they have in common with the other states, and others of which are either peculiar to them, or more abundant, or of better quality than elsewhere. These productions principally are: timber, flax, hemp, cotton, wool, raw silk, indigo, iron, lead, furs, hides, skins, and coals. Of these articles, cotton and indigo are peculiar to the southern states, as are hitherto lead and coals. Flax and hemp are or may be raised in greater abundance there than in the more northern states, and the wool of Virginia is said to be of better quality than that of any other state; a circumstance rendered the more probable by the reflection, that Virginia embraces the same latitudes with the finest wool countries of Europe. The climate of the south is also better adapted to the production of silk.”* The influence of this report was felt throughout the country, proceeding as it did from so able a mind, and embodying a mass of statistical matter connected with the production of the country, which was peculiarly valuable at that period, and more satisfactory to the people, inasmuch as it recommended some uniform and systematic course of policy upon the subject. Meanwhile, Mr. Samuel Slater, a manufacturer from England, who was the founder of the cotton manufacture of the United States, had arrived in this country, and established a manufactory in Providence, Rhode Island. To this individual we are indebted for the introduction into this country of the Arkwright machinery. The manufacture of coarse cloths, composed of cotton, woollen, and flax, had previously been carried on to some extent, and in sufficient quantities, in several districts, to supply four fifths of the clothing of the people. Establishments for the manufacture of cotton and wool, were also erected in Massachusetts and Connecticut; and during the year 1790, the legislature of the former state granted aid to a number of gentlemen who had, in 1787, founded a cotton manufactory in Beverly, of which the principal articles were corduroy, fustians, and jeans. In the same year cotton spinning was first commenced in Pawtucket. A manufactory of woollen was,

* See the Report on Manufactures, in the works of Alexander Hamilton, vol. i. pp. 221, 222.

about the same time, founded in Hartford, Connecticut, through the agency of Jeremiah Wadsworth, Esq. ; and it is an interesting fact connected with the institution of this factory, that George Washington, then president of the United States, during the January of 1790, addressed congress in a suit of woollen cloth woven from its looms, and presented to him by the owners of that establishment.*

Besides the articles to which we have alluded, the product of the manufacture of the United States, General Hamilton, in his report, specifies skins and leather, iron, wool, flax and hemp, bricks, coarse tiles, potters' ware, ardent spirits, malt liquors, different kinds of paper for writing and printing, sheathing and wrapping, press paper, and paper hangings, hats, womens' stuff and silk shoes, refined sugar, oils of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles, copper and brass wares, andirons and other domestic utensils, philosophical apparatus, tin wares, snuff, chewing and smoking tobacco, gunpowder, and painters' colors ; which articles were manufactured in the course of ordinary trade. Such was the germ of the manufactures of this country, which would have ripened to a solid and effective system had not the course of our national policy been affected by circumstances which we shall mention. The encouragement given to American manufactures, both by individuals and national legislation, did not escape the notice of leading statesmen abroad. In 1791, the committee of the Board of Trade, in their distinguished report upon the subject of the West India trade, although acknowledging the right of this country to establish protective duties either for the purposes of revenue or for the encouragement of domestic industry, expressed their anxiety lest these duties should be raised to an extent which should interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain ; and recommended that they should not be increased to a greater amount than they then were. Indeed, they proposed to bind the United States not to raise these duties to a higher than the existing rate ; and if that object was not attained, it was agreed to stipulate that the duties should not exceed those which were established by commercial treaties upon British goods, introduced into Holland and France by formal negotiations with those powers. Another proposition was, that duties upon British goods imported into the United States should not be raised to a greater amount than merchandise imported from any other foreign nation.

It was the evident design of these several propositions, not only to provide for the consumption of British goods in the United States, but also to secure for that empire the carriage of foreign articles. No effective measures appear to have been adopted by the United States upon the subject, however, from the year 1793 to 1807, when the embargo coming on, our colonies found themselves deprived of many necessary articles of manufacture to which they had been accustomed ; and being cut off from foreign intercourse, and, in consequence, from the products of British manufacture, their attention was naturally turned to the protection of this interest among themselves. The House of Representatives, accordingly, in 1809, not only ordered the re-printing of General Hamilton's report upon manufactures, but also required the then Secretary of the Treasury, Hon. Albert

* A society was founded in 1787, in Pennsylvania, for the "encouragement of manufactures and the useful arts." For their plan see White's History of the Rise and Progress of the Cotton Manufacture, p. 50.

Gallatin, to collect the prominent facts connected with the manufactures of the United States and to report a plan for their protection. In accordance with these instructions, Mr. Gallatin, in view of the facts which he had obtained, estimated the total value of American manufactures at \$120,000,000, and those from cotton and wool at \$40,000,000. This information, although inaccurate, was communicated to the house in April of 1810, but on account of the deficiency in the returns, the marshals, with their assistants, were ordered, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to collect and report all the facts connected with manufactures within their several districts; and from these returns, which were, however, defective, the total value of American manufactures at that time was estimated by Tench Coxe at \$127,694,602. The number of cotton factories in the United States, according to the return of the marshals, was one hundred and sixty-eight, and but few woollens were manufactured at all, excepting in private families.*

But the war of 1812 soon followed, by which the country was effectively deprived of foreign fabrics, and the necessary consequence of this event, was the direction of the public mind to the subject of domestic manufactures. A large amount of capital was accordingly invested in this interest, and the number of manufactures was increased to a great extent; but these establishments were erected only to meet with disaster on the return of peace, for in 1815, our ports having been opened to foreign goods, the manufactures of Great Britain poured in upon the country to such an amount as effectually to glut the American markets; and while the British importers suffered great losses by the diminution of the price of their goods, from that fact the prospects of the American manufacturer were effectually clouded. Indeed, the principles which have uniformly characterized the policy of Great Britain were clearly demonstrated in the remark made by Lord Brougham respecting this policy upon the floor of the British parliament, in relation to these losses. "*It is well worth while,*" said that gentleman, "*to incur a loss upon the first exportation, in order, by the glut, to stifle in the cradle those rising manufactures in the United States, which the war has forced into existence contrary to the natural course of things.*"

The national mind, upon the return of peace, appears to have been more particularly directed to the importance of the protection of American manufactures, and in 1816 an effective course of legislation was directed to that object. Its offspring was the tariff of 1816, designed mainly to protect the domestic production of cotton and woollen fabrics. By this act, the duty upon woollens, from June of 1816 to the same month of the year 1819, was fixed at twenty-five per cent ad valorem, and from the period last named at twenty per cent. It was also provided by this act that all cotton cloths whose original cost was less than twenty-five cents per yard, should be deemed to have cost that sum, and should pay duties accordingly; the design of the act being to exclude the coarse cotton fabrics of the East Indies, and to protect the manufacture as well as the production of American cotton. A permanent duty of thirty per cent was also laid upon various other articles, such as hats, cabinet wares, manufactures of wood, carriages, leather, and also upon all manufactures of leather and paper; and in order to encourage the production of domestic

*To Mr. Pitkin's work we are indebted for many valuable facts connected with this part of the subject.

sugar, a duty of three cents per pound was laid upon all imported brown sugar. Upon some of these articles, however, the duty was raised in 1818, and in 1824 there was a revision of duties upon all woollen and cotton goods; which, however, was met by a countervailing act of the parliament of Great Britain, which reduced the duty upon imported wool from six-pence sterling per pound to one penny, for the purpose of permitting the British manufacturer to send his woollen fabrics to the United States at a cheaper rate, and in order to prevent the successful operations of American industry in this respect. In consequence of these measures the American manufacturers applied to congress for relief, and the result was the celebrated tariff of 1828, which increased these duties to a considerable extent, prescribing the duties upon all woollens which did not exceed fifty cents at forty-five per cent ad valorem, and the duty upon other articles in the same proportion.

Such was the policy of the country in reference to the production of American manufactures until the year 1831. At this period it was proposed to reorganize the revenue system, inasmuch as the national debt was nearly extinguished, and for that object two separate conventions were held for the purpose of remodelling the financial policy of the nation in this respect: the one, the free-trade convention which was held at Philadelphia, and composed of gentlemen of intelligence, maintained the expediency of reducing all the duties upon imported products to a low and equal rate; and the tariff convention, composed of men of equal character, supported the policy of reducing the duties only upon those articles which did not interfere with our domestic products—articles which had not been and could not be produced in the country. At the meetings of these several conventions, the principles governing the interests involved were weighed, discussed, and set forth in their several addresses made to the people, and the petitions to congress, by both parties. Upon their several suggestions followed the acts of congress of the fourteenth of July, 1832, modifying the preceding tariff laws. During the succeeding year arose the sectional discussion that wellnigh rent the Union asunder, when the people of the country beheld the state of South Carolina in a posture of alleged rebellion against the laws of the Union. Before the prior act had taking effect, however, the tariff law of 1832 was modified by what was denominated "The Compromise Bill," which is understood to have been framed by the admirable statesmanship of the Hon. Henry Clay, who, by this measure, doubtless saved the country from those overt acts on the part of South Carolina, claiming itself to be a sovereign state, which would probably have amounted to treason by the constitution. This last tariff law, enacted during the winter of 1833, extended its provisions down to the thirtieth of June, 1842. It provided that all the duties which exceeded twenty per cent upon the value, should be reduced twenty per cent annually, until the thirtieth of June, 1842. The same act declares what articles shall be admitted free of duty after the thirtieth of June, 1842; attempts to limit the power of future legislatures in regard to the amount of the imposition of duties on imports to a sum not exceeding twenty per cent ad valorem, and also declares that only those duties should be laid after the thirtieth of June, 1842, as may be required for the purpose of raising such revenue as may be necessary to an economical administration of the government. Such then is the present state of the tariff law.

Having sketched a brief history of the manufacturing policy of the

country, we now propose to enter upon a rapid view of the opinions entertained upon that subject, from time to time, by different sections of the republic. On the establishment of the first tariff law in 1816, it is well known that New England voted with the south, and in opposition to the western states, as well as New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, upon the question of the protection which was to be afforded to the interest of the cotton manufacturer; and the bill for reduction was ultimately carried by New England votes, together with those of the southern portion of the country. As regards the alleged original support of the protective system by the south, we have upon record the explanation of the southern policy upon that subject, from Mr. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, one of its most eloquent and able orators. His remarks we subjoin, in order that both sides of the question may be heard; for it is our design to enter into no party argument, but only to trace the political history of manufactures, and, as accessory thereto, to give the views of leading statesmen upon this important national interest. "There still remains another misrepresentation of the conduct of the state," said Mr. Calhoun, "which has been made with the view of exciting odium. I allude to the charge that South Carolina supported the tariff of 1816, and is, therefore, responsible for the protective system. To determine the truth of this charge, it becomes necessary to ascertain the real character of that law, whether it was a tariff for revenue or protection; which presents the inquiry, what was the condition of the country at that period? The late war with Great Britain had just terminated, which, with the restrictive system that preceded it, had diverted a large amount of industry from commerce to manufactures, particularly to the cotton and woollen branches. There was a debt at the same time of one hundred and thirty millions of dollars hanging over the country, and the heavy war duties were still in existence. Under these circumstances the question was presented, to what point the duties ought to be reduced. That question involved another—at what time the debt ought to be paid?—which was a question of policy involving, in its consideration, all the circumstances connected with the then condition of the country. Among the most prominent arguments in favor of an early discharge of the debt was, that the high duties which it would require to effect it, would have, at the same time, the effect of sustaining the infant manufactures which had been forced up under the circumstances to which I have adverted. This view of the subject had a decided influence in determining in favor of an early payment of the debt. The sinking fund was accordingly raised from seven to ten millions of dollars, with the provision to apply the surplus which might remain in the treasury as a contingent appropriation to that fund, and the duties were graduated to meet this increased expenditure. It was thus that the policy and justice of protecting the large amount of capital and industry, which had been diverted by the measures of the government into new channels, as I have stated, was combined with the fiscal action of the government, and which, while it secured a prompt payment of the debt, prevented the immense losses to the manufacturers which would have followed a sudden and great reduction. Still revenue was the main object, and protection but the incidental. The bill to reduce the duties was reported by the committee of ways and means, and not of manufactures, and it proposed a heavy reduction on the then existing rate of duties. But what of itself, without other evidence, was decisive as to the character of the bill, is the fact that it fixed a much

higher rate of duties on the unprotected than the protected articles. I will enumerate a few leading articles only. Woollen and cotton above the value of twenty-five cents on the square yard, though they were the leading objects of protection, were subject to a permanent duty of only twenty per cent. Iron, another leading article among the protected, had a protection of not more than nine per cent, as fixed by the act, and of but fifteen as reported in the bill. These rates were all below the average duties as fixed in the act, including the protected, the unprotected, and even the free articles. I have entered into some calculation in order to ascertain the average rate of duties under the act. There is some uncertainty in the data, but I feel assured that it is not less than thirty per cent *ad valorem*, showing an excess of the average duties above that imposed on the protected articles enumerated of more than ten per cent, and thus clearly establishing the character of the measure, that it was for revenue and not protection.”*

Even during the year 1824, the votes of New England stood fifteen for and twenty-three against the act, while those of the states of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Kentucky, and Ohio, were in favor of the measure—seventy-eight standing for and nine against it. Upon the bill which was introduced into the house during that year, Mr. Webster, acting as the organ of a portion of New England, clearly expressed his views, which, coming as they did from one of the most powerful minds of any age, certainly deserve respectful consideration. Upon that question this distinguished statesman, although he did not in fact oppose the tariff system as a system, was, nevertheless, averse to the measure of protection viewed by that bill. For example, he was opposed to a very high duty upon imported wool, and, indeed, he appears to have been informed by his constituents that such duty would, in the end, injure the domestic producer of that article, because, as was claimed, a certain quantity of wool, cheaper than could be furnished here, was required for the operations of our woollen manufactories, and would thus tend to diminish its consumption. He was opposed to an increased duty upon iron, because the serfs of Russia and Sweden could manufacture it for the wages of seven cents per day, and to an increased duty upon hemp, because it was calculated to injure the shipping interest. Indeed, his opposition to those features of the bill, which seemed, in their consequences, likely to injure the commercial interests of the nation, was eloquently and openly avowed. In regard to the cotton manufacture, he stated in that debate, “As to the manufactures of cotton, it is agreed, I believe, that they are generally successful. It is understood that the present existing duty operates pretty much as a prohibition over those descriptions of fabrics to which it applies. The proposed alteration would probably enable the American manufacturer to commence competition with higher priced fabrics, and so would, perhaps, an augmentation less than is here proposed. I consider the cotton manufactures not only to have reached, but to have passed the point of competition. I regard their success as certain, and their growth as rapid as the most impatient could well expect. If, however, a provision of the nature of that recommended here, should be found necessary to commence new

* See the speech of Hon. John C. Calhoun in the senate, Feb. 15th, 1833, on the bill reported by the committee on the judiciary, relative to the proceedings of South Carolina.

operations in the same line of manufacture, I should cheerfully agree to it if it were not at the cost of sacrificing other great interests of the country. I need hardly say that whatever promotes the cotton and woollen manufactures, promotes most important interests of my constituents. They have a great stake in the success of those establishments, and, as far as those manufactures are concerned, would be as much benefited by the provisions of this bill as any part of the community. It is obvious, too, I should think, that for some considerable time manufactures of this sort, to whatever magnitude they may rise, will be principally established in those parts of the country where population is most dense, capital most abundant, and where the most successful beginnings have been already made. But if these be thought to be advantages, they are greatly counterbalanced by important advantages enjoyed by other portions of the country. I cannot but regard the situation of the west as highly favorable to human happiness. It offers, in the abundance of its new and fertile lands, such assurances of permanent prosperity and respectability to the industrious, it enables them to lay such sure foundations for a competent provision for their families, it makes such a nation of freeholders, that it need not envy the most happy and prosperous of the manufacturing communities. We may talk as we will of well-fed and well-clothed day-laborers or journeymen; they are not after all to be compared, either for happiness or respectability, with him who sleeps under his own roof and cultivates his own fee-simple inheritance.”*

The fundamental principle of the argument of Mr. Webster in that debate was, that protection should be afforded only to those articles which we might produce at nearly the same cost as they could be furnished from abroad. “The true inquiry is,” said he, “can we produce the article in a useful state at the same cost, or at any reasonable approximation towards the same cost at which we can import it?”† In the debate upon that subject in 1824, the same system of policy appears to have been advocated by Mr. Webster, and, in 1833, he maintained the constitutionality of the tariff laws against the most powerful champion of the south, Mr. John C. Calhoun. From the causes which we have mentioned, the various manufacturing interests of the country have gradually grown to their present state, sometimes impeded by temporary checks, but generally maintaining their proper equilibrium, so that now they may be considered as having attained a solid and permanent foundation. Nor has the production of cotton and woollen fabrics alone been nurtured into vigor. The various species of manufactured production, as connected with the trades, have kept pace with the larger interests, so that we have not only in great measure supplied ourselves, but in some species furnished a surplus for exportation.

It would be impracticable to go into a particular description of the amount of the various manufactured articles which are produced in the U. States, from the want of accurate returns of their production. We accordingly pass over at present a consideration of the manufacture of cottons and woollens, and proceed to a general view of those articles which are produced from other sources than manufacturing establishments. And first, we turn to the manufacture of iron. It is well known that immense beds of this mineral, as well

* See Webster's Speeches and Forensic Arguments, Vol. I., p. 294.

† Ibid.

as those of lead, are beginning to be laid open throughout our western states, and as early as 1810, the total manufactures of iron in the country was estimated at \$14,364,526 in value. Indeed, when we look at the vast quantity of machinery that is made in Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and many of our eastern states, besides the very large amount of hardware that is even now manufactured in the country, as also implements of household comfort, we must be convinced that this production is an important and lucrative branch of enterprise. To these may be added the manufacture of leather, a sufficient portion of which is wrought for the domestic consumption of the country. New York and Pennsylvania carry on this business to a great extent, and it is well known that the great bulk of the inhabitants of Lynn, in Massachusetts, are principally engaged in the manufacture of shoes. The manufacture of trunks, harness, boots, and saddlery is carried on in almost every village of the country of any considerable size. According to the authority of Mr. Pitkin, the total amount of this manufacture in the United States cannot be less than from forty to forty-five millions of dollars. The manufacture of hats has also long been an object of American enterprise; and when we consider the number of these articles which is required at home for domestic consumption, it is a source of honest pride that we have long, not only supplied our domestic markets with hats of our own production, but furnished a surplus for exportation. The manufacture of fur hats is carried on to a considerable extent in Albany, besides that of straw-hats in Massachusetts. It was estimated by Mr. Pitkin, that in Massachusetts the value of hats, caps, and straw bonnets of all kinds, amounted, in 1832, to fifteen millions of dollars.

The manufacture of cabinet ware, in its various forms, is, it is well known, carried on to a great extent in the country, and produces not only a sufficient quantity for our own supply, but in 1833 yielded a surplus for exportation that amounted to \$200,635. The necessary article of salt is also made in great abundance in the states of Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Sugar has been made formerly in Louisiana to the amount of from twenty-five to thirty thousand hogsheads per annum, and molasses to the amount of one million two hundred and fifty thousand gallons; although the amount returned in 1831 from that state was, of sugar seventy-five thousand hogsheads, and of molasses three millions six hundred and fifty thousand gallons. The business of refining sugar has recently become an important object of enterprise, and this business is carried on to a considerable extent in the country. It is well ascertained that the sugar of Louisiana is equally valuable for refining with that of the West Indies. An establishment for this purpose has been erected in New Orleans, and a considerable number of sugar refineries have been erected throughout different parts of the country. The useful and beautiful article of glass is, it is probably well known, made to a considerable extent in our country; the principal points for the manufacture of which are Pittsburgh, Boston, New York, and Wheeling in Virginia, Maryland, Brownsville in Ohio, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, and in the District of Columbia. The manufactures of the United States have extended not only to the making of flint glass, but crown window-glass, cylinder window-glass, glass bottles, vials, apothecaries' ware, demijohns, carboys, &c., and the total amount of our domestic manufacture of this article was recently estimated at three millions of dollars. The production of spirituous liquors forms no inconsiderable a portion of the manufactures of

the country, and notwithstanding the laudable exertions of the temperance societies, a large amount is now produced, not only from molasses, but the different kinds of grain. Besides the several species of manufacture which we have enumerated, may be mentioned the production of a new fabric ; we mean that of silk. As early as 1760, the white mulberry tree was introduced into Mansfield, in the state of Connecticut ; but little appears to have been accomplished in this interest until the close of the American revolution, and in 1783 a bounty of ten shillings was granted for every hundred white mulberry trees, and a bounty of three pence for every ounce of raw silk. This bounty, together with others which succeeded, was eminently calculated to stimulate the enterprise of the silk manufacturers, so that the amount of raw silk annually made was recently estimated at about seven thousand pounds, which were valued at thirty thousand dollars. The recent attention of the people to this subject throughout the country is calculated to increase the manufacture of this article to a much greater amount. Various chemical compounds sold by the druggists are also made in large quantities ; an application of chemistry to the useful arts which is attended with very valuable practical results. Copperas, to the amount of many millions of pounds, is also here produced. The manufacture of lead has been carried on also to a considerable extent, the mines of the western portion of our country having produced from 1823 to 1832, fifty-five millions nine hundred and three thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight pounds, to which a large addition will be made from the new mines of Wisconsin and Iowa, which recent developments have opened to the light. White lead, red, and sugar of lead, are also made to a considerable extent. Soap and spermaceti candles ; paper, which has always received protection from the government, not only by the imposition of duties upon the imports, but also by the free importation of the rags of which it is made ; tobacco, that is annually produced in this country to several millions of dollars. Cables and cordage, gold and silver jewelry and plated ware, as well as ware of brass, copper, tin, pewter, and britannia buttons and combs, porcelain, and carriages of different sorts, various articles made from flax and hemp, which are used in shipping and other purposes, are also yielded. We have thus merely alluded to these products of American industry for the purpose of showing the numerous objects to which the activity of our country has been directed, an enterprise which is destined to be advanced to more important results as the population of the republic increases, and augmented stimulants are provided for domestic production, by more extended markets, both at home and abroad. Most of these articles constitute the greater part of the materials of domestic trade, and fill our shops and warehouses. There is no plainer evidence of the progress of the country than in the contrast of the amount of these articles now daily yielded with that of former times. And it is a source of satisfaction that their manufacture is constantly increasing. Throughout the whole length and breadth of the settled portion of the republic, how many thousand workshops are ringing with the sound of the hammer ! How many forges are pouring forth their columns of smoke towards the heavens, and what multitudes of men in the various trades are moulding the raw materials, provided by nature, into new forms of utility and taste, thus augmenting human comfort and swelling the sum of national wealth ! Of the amount of this productive labor, we can form some estimate by computing the value of the consumption of our country,

and the proportion which is furnished to this consumption by our domestic production.

Besides the articles to which we have alluded, various others are yielded in the country, and among those which we would specify, are manufactures of umbrellas, brushes, brass nails, and cotton and woollen cards, all of which are supposed to amount in value to about three hundred and fifty millions of dollars per annum, and which load the shelves of our shops.

We have thus seen the manufactures of the United States forced into existence by the early exigences of the country when we were cut off from foreign supplies, and actually strengthening under the fostering hand of the government, so that they have now gained a fixed and permanent foothold upon the soil. We now proceed to a consideration of that part of the policy which, as a system, is probably designed to be the subject of more ardent discussion than any other of our national interests, because it is more important in its character, being more extensive in its influence, and involves larger consequences than the individual industry which is connected with the trades. The solid and vigorous enterprise of the people of our northern states, and that of a portion of the west and south, have planted the basis of the cotton manufacture upon the soil, encountering obstacles in the attempt that would seem calculated to dishearten any but themselves. We have seen the south at one time in favor of the system, and at another opposing it, and it becomes interesting to know something of its present state. We have no means at hand of ascertaining the precise condition of the woollen manufacture, but it is ascertained that this has advanced to considerable importance in our northern states. In those portions of our territory where the rugged character of the soil seems to furnish but scanty motive for agricultural labor, and where an abundance of water-power appears to have provided ample means for this species of industry, manufactories have sprung up to an extent that would hardly seem credible to one whose attention had not been directed expressly to the fact. Numerous villages have silently extended themselves in the interior of New England, whose existence was scarcely known to those upon the border; and it is only by the cutting of a railroad through them, in order to furnish an outlet to their products, that the public have had an opportunity to witness their actual condition. The searching glance of American enterprise has sought out every fall where a head of water could be obtained for the purpose of placing upon it a factory; and even the southern and western states appear to be emulating the example which has been set by those of the north: indeed we cannot fail to be impressed with the amazing growth of this branch of enterprise, when we learn that, according to an authentic computation, the amount of capital invested in the cotton manufacture of our country is forty-five millions of dollars,—about one fourth of that which is employed in the cotton manufacture of Great Britain.*

In regard to the policy of encouraging the manufacturing system of this country by national legislation, the fundamental doctrine laid down by General Hamilton, in his report, appears to be founded in solid reason,—a doctrine which maintained that “every nation ought to endeavor to possess within itself all the essentials of national supply; these comprise the means of subsistence, habitation, clothing, and defence. The possession of these,”

* See “The Cotton Manufacture of Great Britain and America contrasted,” by James Montgomery, page 161.

he remarked, "is necessary to the protection of the body politic, to the safety as well as to the welfare of society : the want of either is the want of an important organ of political life and motion ; and in the various crises which await a state, it must severely feel the effects of any such deficiency. The extreme embarrassments of the United States during the late war (the war of the revolution) from the incapacity of supplying ourselves, are still matters of keen recollection. A future war might be expected again to exemplify the mischiefs and dangers of a situation to which that incapacity is still in too great a degree applicable, unless by timely and vigorous exertions. To effect this change as fast as shall be prudent, merits all the attention and all the zeal of our public councils : 'tis the next great work to be accomplished."* This view appears to have been fortified by all our national experience. General Hamilton had himself been a prominent actor in a contest which clearly demonstrated the position. He had seen a country invaded by a foreign army, destitute, in a great measure, of the means which might have supplied their necessary wants ; and a soldiery, in many instances, driven on to forced marches beneath wintry skies without the necessary clothing which ordinary comfort would seem to have required to protect them in the service of their country. The war of 1812 exhibited the same scene, and after the peace it was found necessary to direct the public mind with more vigor to the protection of manufacturing industry, a policy which has been continued to the present time.

It is understood that the south and southwest are opposed to the imposition of duties upon foreign manufactured fabrics, because they say that the diminution of importations would have a tendency to contract the market for their cotton abroad, and that, since their staple furnishes the great bulk of the freights which are exported, they have a right to control the protective policy of the country. But how stands the matter ? The imposition of duties upon foreign fabrics, is the levy of a tax upon the consumer of the article protected ; and how large a proportion of these consumers is furnished by the population of the south ? Certainly a very inconsiderable portion of the consumption of the nation is provided by that part of the country ! The raising of cotton by the south is an enterprise dictated by their own interest, and the shipping it to foreign parts is governed by the same motives. If duties are to be laid upon foreign fabrics, the largest proportion of the consumers, or those upon whom the tax is levied, should control the policy. We profess to be opposed as much as anybody to a narrow, exclusive, sectional legislation. Let broad-minded statesmen have in their eye the good of the whole country, and they will establish this interest upon the right basis. Let them keep in view the welfare, not only of the factory owner, but the mechanic—the good of the northern weaver, as well as the southern planter, and the western wheat-grower—and their ends will be good. Let them legislate for the just gains of the employers, who, in most cases, have acquired their capital by their own industry, and for the interests of the great mass of the operatives also. If it is found that it is necessary for the economical administration of the government that duties should be augmented, let these duties be discriminating, having clearly in view the prosperity of the whole country.

If a tax is to be levied, the great bulk of the consumers, the people, must pay it, and let it be imposed in such mode and measure as will result

* See the Report of General Hamilton on Manufactures.

in their benefit. It would seem to be the proper policy of the country, if we are to nurture the system of manufactures by national legislation as a branch of national enterprise, to discover, in the first place, how far the interest of the nation makes it necessary that this system should be protected. If there are any evils which have been found growing out of the system by the employment of operatives who are too young to engage in such labors, if their too constant occupation in these establishments leaves but little time for intellectual and moral cultivation, or if by full investigation it should be discovered that such labor is calculated to produce ill health to the workmen who are engaged in them, consequences which we are informed have often flowed from the manufacturing system as it has been conducted in England, we should in the commencement of our career guard ourselves against these consequences. If the manufacturing system receives aid from the government, it will doubtless yield to those rules prescribed by the several state legislatures for its regulation. The most important of these rules would seem to be such enactments as should prohibit the employment of all operatives under a certain age, a proper provision for their education, a proper regulation of the hours of labor, and such a ventilation of the factories as to prevent the mephitic influences which may possibly spring from the confined air of those institutions. Such a policy would be of no detriment to the cotton manufacturer, while it would most effectually tend to the advantage of that large class which comprises our factory population.

The policy of protection is founded in this :—that it is desirable that all nations should possess in themselves the means of comfort without dependence upon foreign markets. This independence may be partially secured by such an imposition of taxes on the article necessary to be protected, as will furnish encouragement to the producer. The *abstract* policy of free trade cannot, we think, be considered with any practical advantage as a national question, because we have no power of controlling foreign legislation. It is very evident that the western portion of our country is by nature more favorable for the raising of agricultural products, such as wheat and corn, than any other part of the globe. But if the attention of our own people is directed exclusively to the raising of wheat, what would be its value if foreign ports should be barred against us, as Great Britain now is in effect by the existence of the corn laws. The foreign policy which we have mentioned, and the necessity that is found to the depending upon ourselves in case of exigency, has induced the establishment of the protective policy, in order that encouragement may be thus afforded to various kinds of manufacturing industry. The numerous trades, and every species of productive labor, will be benefited by that legislation which excludes the competition of foreign labor, whether manufacturing or otherwise. But whatever may be the differences of opinion which may hereafter divide the country upon the subject of the protective policy, the manufacturing system has become so deeply rooted among us, that it must in the nature of things be permanent. It has, indeed, been estimated by an experienced manufacturer, that the amount of capital invested in the cotton manufacture alone, throughout the Union, cannot be less at the present time than forty-five millions of dollars. Of this amount the state of Massachusetts alone, four years ago, employed \$14,369,719 of this capital. New York, with its vast agricultural and commercial resources, appears to be but little behind her sister state of Massachusetts.

Lowell, the offspring of the manufacturing system, now containing a population of about twenty thousand,* has derived its prosperity from this branch of enterprise, and the system is here more thoroughly organized than in any other part of the country; the factories producing a greater amount of cloth and yarn from each spindle and loom than is furnished by any other factory upon the globe: and our surprise at its amazing prosperity will be increased, when we learn that only about twenty years since the tract which now embraces this great city of spindles was occupied only by a few farmers, who gained their subsistence by cultivating this unfruitful spot in taking fish in the rivers of Concord and Merrimack.

That the cotton manufacture is gradually extending through the country under favorable auspices, there can be but little doubt. The principal waterfalls of Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, are successfully improved by its wonderful agency; and in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and some of the principal towns upon the Ohio, it has made considerable progress. It is believed that the interest will be permanently fixed as the population of the country advances, not only in the north and east, but the southern states and the remote west, which is now burdened with all the resources which give wealth and stability to nations.† We are informed that several cotton factories are in existence in Tennessee, which are operated by slave labor, no white man being in the mill but the superintendent; and the water-power in a part of that section of the territory is so abundant, that it is believed that the interest of manufactures can be prosecuted successfully,

* A late number of the Lowell Journal published a sketch of that city, its manufacturing establishments, schools, morals, religion, &c., drawn up by *Eliphalet Case*, Esq., from which we derive the following:

“The town of Lowell was incorporated March, 1826. On the spot now occupied by the city, the population, at the time the first purchases were made for manufacturing purposes, did not exceed 200 persons. In 1828, it reached 3,532; in 1830, it was 6,477; in 1833, it was 12,363; in 1836, it was 17,633; and by the census of 1840, it was 20,981. It is now only twenty years since the project of using the waters of the Pawtucket Falls originated with several enterprising gentlemen of Boston and vicinity. The increase of population has, therefore, exceeded a thousand a year, for twenty years.

The city charter was obtained in 1836. The city is situated at the confluence of the Merrimack and Concord rivers, on the west side of the Merrimack, above and below the famous Pawtucket Falls, and on both sides of the Concord, between which and the Falls, a distance of about a mile, the canals and mills are all located, extending back from the first-named river about three fourths of a mile. Lowell is connected with Boston by the Middlesex canal and the Boston and Lowell railroad. The distance is twenty-six miles. The road is the best built of any in the United States. It is constructed with iron rails, resting on granite sleepers laid on stones imbedded in the earth, and has double tracks. The city is connected with Andover and Haverhill, in this state, and Exeter, N. H., by a railroad that connects with the Boston and Lowell, ten miles below. It is connected with Nashua, N. H., by the Nashua and Lowell railroad, fifteen miles in length. Numerous lines of stages also connect it with every other important section of the surrounding country. It is bounded as follows, viz: 1,068 rods on Merrimack river, 426 on Tewksbury, 248 on Concord river, and 1,122 rods on the old town of Chelmsford, of which it originally formed a part. It contains 3,200 acres, including half the waters of the rivers, the distance which they bound it.”

† The progress of population in the new states of the west has tended in good measure to extend the interest of manufactures into that quarter.

although perhaps the climate of that region may in some measure impede its present prosperity; indeed, while we are writing, we learn by the newspapers that a cotton factory has just gone into operation within the remotest southern boundaries of Florida. It is understood that the principal manufacturing establishments of our northern states are engaged in the production of goods for home consumption, but considerable quantities have been exported to India and South America, where it is understood that American staples have hitherto competed successfully with those of British production. If Mr. Webster, as early as 1824, could say with truth that even at that time the manufactures of the country had been established upon a basis beyond competition, how much more safely may the remark now be made, when prosperous manufacturing villages dot the country from Maine to Tennessee and the banks of the Ohio, and are beginning to spring up even in the extreme south!

And what is the condition of these institutions in reference to the modes of life of the operatives engaged in them?—for that condition becomes a part of the question when the interest is brought up before the country as a matter of national legislation. We have had, indeed, distressing pictures painted for us by Miss Martineau and Edward Lytton Bulwer, of the condition of these establishments abroad. And, in truth, amid the overgrown population of the United Kingdom, and that subdivision of labor, by which the same course of pursuit is entailed from generation to generation, we might well expect scenes of distress which are revolting to human nature, and opposed to the spirit and structure of a republican government. We have had evidence of the existence of children in English factories, who were scarcely disrobed of their swaddling clothes, urged on by long-continued toil to premature age, before the bloom of youth should have faded from their cheeks; of Spitalfield weavers—those dwarfish, withered, crooked apologies for humanity—with the light of intellect faded from their eyes by the incessant labors to which they are exposed, and the want of the ordinary means of education. And this evidence has been adduced in abundance upon the floor of the English house of commons. Opposed to this we have had counter-statements, going to show that the condition of the English factory operatives is as happy as that of any other class of the English population. The state of the infant portion of the factory population in that empire has awakened the interest of some of the most benevolent of the British statesmen; and it certainly is one of the noblest passages of the career of Sir Robert Peel, that in 1819, he succeeded in obtaining the passage of an act by which no child, under nine years of age, should be allowed in a cotton factory, nor under sixteen be subject to more than twelve hours of labor during the day; a course of policy which brought upon him unmerited reproach. Nor was the late Mr. Sadler far behind his noble compeer in the same cause, who fully laid open the horrors which were perpetrated in the English cotton and woollen factories; and being a member of the legislature, proposed not only that every species of manufacture should be subject to the same law, but at a more recent period proposed that the hours of labor should be limited to ten.

But the causes which bear so unfavorably upon the factory operatives of Great Britain, we think, can never obtain any permanent foothold in our own country. In the first place, the character of the government is entirely distinct, being based upon a broad foundation of republicanism.

The people in this country are peculiarly jealous of all those measures of policy whose tendency is in any way to debase the more active classes ; and it is well known that they watch with lynx-eyed vigilance all those interests which abroad have induced in any measure such a result. It is also well known that it is in the power of the majority at all times to discountenance measures which lead to the consequences that we have described. The principles of our holy religion are too deeply implanted in the soil, to further that course of policy which might lead either to vice or ignorance ; and it is well known that in no other part of the globe are moral principles more widely diffused than in that particular section of the republic where the manufacturing system the most extensively prevails. The husbands, the fathers, and the brothers of those who constitute the active agents of this system, are themselves voters, and some of them even the legislators of the country. We have, moreover, so much faith in the conscientious integrity of the factory owners themselves—many of them true-hearted men, as we know them to be—as to believe that they would never be willing to foster any course of legislation which should have a tendency, in the remotest degree, to endanger the intelligence or the morals of their fellow-citizens ; and equal confidence in the people of the country, who we believe will never countenance any form of national abuse. Nor do we believe that the condition of the factory operatives of the United States is such as to warrant any fears respecting their present state. In the interior of New England, we all know, that many of them are employed near their own homes, and within the range of the oversight of their friends ; and so far as morals are concerned, it is believed that the factory establishments afford as much purity in this respect as is found in other branches of occupation. As regards the health of the active agents of the cotton establishments, evidence has been from time to time adduced upon that subject even here ; and it would seem that the advantages of the operatives in this respect are as great as are furnished by most other kinds of active employment. We learn from a work which has been recently issued, that the health of six females out of ten is better than before being employed in the mills, and that of the males, one half derive the same advantage. Nor is factory labor pursued here as in England—a continuous business for life. The young men and women of the country, in those places where the factory system prevails, employ their industry in these establishments, not as a main object of pursuit, but as a stepping-stone to a future settlement, or to other occupations. When they have, by dint of labor, procured for themselves a small sum, it not unfrequently happens that they marry and engage in other pursuits, or emigrate to the broad and rich fields of the west, where the soil, like a kind mother, opens its arms to receive them, and where they settle down permanent freeholders, perhaps the future legislators of the country.

It may be well here to enter into a brief view of the domestic arrangements of our cotton manufacturing establishments, so far as the operatives employed in them are concerned. And, first, respecting the ages of the children. From the table to which we have referred, it appears that in 1831, there were only four thousand six hundred and ninety-one children employed in these establishments at that time who were under the age of twelve years. Of these Maine had none, New Hampshire sixty, Vermont nineteen, Rhode Island the largest number, namely, three thousand four hundred and seventy-two, Connecticut four hundred and thirty-nine, New

York four hundred and eighty-four, and New Jersey but two hundred and seventeen; certainly a small number, when it is considered that at that time there were eighteen thousand five hundred and ninety males employed in all the factories, and thirty-eight thousand nine hundred and twenty-seven females.

As regards the hours of labor—taking Lowell as a test—it appears, that work is commenced in the morning, from the first of September to the first of May, at daylight, or as soon as the operatives can see, and is discontinued during these eight months at half past seven in the evening. From May to the first of September, five o'clock in the morning is the time for the commencement of the work, and it is stopped in the evening at seven o'clock. Half-past twelve is the dinner hour during the year, forty-five minutes being allowed for that purpose during the summer months, and thirty during the other eight. The following table from an experienced manufacturer, Mr. Montgomery, gives the average hours of labor during the year.

Average hours of work per day throughout the year.

	Hours.	Min.		Hours.	Min.
January,	11	24	July,	12	45
February,	12	—	August,	12	45
March,	11	52	September,	12	23
April,	13	31	October,	12	10
May,	12	45	November,	11	56
June,	12	45	December,	11	24

This statement may, perhaps, apply to most of the manufacturing establishments in the eastern portion of the country, although the hours may vary somewhat in the middle and southern districts. The four holidays, fast, independence day, thanksgiving, and christmas, besides the sabbath, of course, are devoted to rest, religious duties, and amusement. It may be mentioned also, that the average wages of females at Lowell is two dollars a week, besides their board, and that of the men is about eighty cents per day, besides their board.*

* The following is a particular account of the manufactories of Lowell, obtained from the source to which we have referred in a former note :

“The great corporations of the city are eleven in number. The capital invested in them amounts to \$10,600,000. The proprietors of the locks and canals on Merrimack river may be considered as the original owners of all the water-power of the Merrimack at this place, and the original purchasers of all the most valuable adjoining lands. This company was incorporated in 1792, for the purpose of making a canal and locks around the Pawtucket falls. Its capital stock is \$600,000. The charter was purchased by the present company on the eve of commencing the manufacturing operations in this place that have resulted in such unparalleled success. The dam across the Merrimack, and the various canals in the city, by which its waters are conveyed to the mills, were made by it. With two exceptions it built all the mills, boarding-houses, and machinery of the other corporations. It has two shops, smithy and foundry, and gives constant employment to five hundred men, and when building mills and boarding-houses for new corporations, to twelve hundred. Its principal building is called ‘The Machine Shop.’ It turns out manufactured articles to the amount of about \$250,000 per annum. The stock in this corporation has been, if it is not now, probably the best in the world. Besides selling a vast amount of land, on which the principal part of the city now stands, at prices varying from one eighth of a dollar to one dollar per square foot, which was purchased at one or two hundred dollars the acre, the profit on all the mills and boarding-houses it has built on good contracts for the other

We have thus traced a brief view of the rise and progress of the manufacturing interest of the United States—an interest which has kept even pace with the progress of the country in its other mercantile enterprises, and that has now become fixed upon the soil. The offspring, in great measure, of necessity, it has sought and obtained direct legislation from the government in its favor. The period is within the remembrance of some of our older citizens, when the customary dress of the people was homespun, and a suit of broadcloth was deemed a luxury—a silk dress being considered an indulgence which required a public reprimand. The progress of the country in this respect is clearly demonstrated, not only by the general use of imported and costly cloths among the great body of our citizens, but also in the vast amount of domestic consumption from the looms of our own manufacturing establishments. The question of the further protection of our manufacturing interests, resolves itself into a matter of expediency and economy. Would such protection be of solid benefit to the community, and is it required by our present condition? Furthermore, is it a branch of economical policy which should be fostered? These are interrogatories which now divide the people; and they will receive a final discussion upon the expiration of the present tariff law. It is admitted, on all hands, that duties are required for the maintenance of the revenue; but the more important question is, are those duties required for protection? The system of manufactures, as we before hinted, may be considered, in great part, the offspring of the government; and all must admit, that such a policy should be pursued as will tend to the best in-

corporations, and the profits on the immense manufactures of its shops, consisting principally of full sets of machinery for cotton and woollen mills, locomotive engines, &c., it reserves and receives an annual rent for the water-power disposed of for each mill.

“The capital stock of the remaining ten great corporations is, of course, \$10,000,000. Besides these establishments, there are the Lowell Bleachery; the extensive Powder Works of O. M. Whipple, Esq.; the Flannel Mills; the Whitney Mills, where blankets of the very best quality and finish are made; a Batting Mill; Card and Whip Factory of White & Co.; an extensive Bobbin Factory of the Messrs. Douglass; Planing Machine of Brooks & Pickering; extensive Carriage and Harness Manufactory of Day, Converse & Whittredge; Sash and Door Factory of J. H. Wrand; employing altogether a capital of about \$400,000, and 400 operatives. The whole number of males employed in all the manufacturing establishments in the city is about 2,500, and of females 7,000. Very few children are employed. It is provided by the laws of the commonwealth, that all youths employed in the mills, under fourteen years of age, shall attend the schools three months out of twelve every year. The average wages of females is two dollars per week, clear of board; and of males, common hands, eighty cents per day, clear of board. All are paid monthly. The total amount of average monthly wages, out of which board bill must be paid, is about \$170,000, making a yearly aggregate, paid to operatives, by all the corporations, of over \$2,000,000.

The weekly product of the mills is 1,265,560 yards of cotton cloth, of which 70,000 are of the coarsest kind, called negro cloth. The rest is mostly common, coarse, and fine sheetings, shirtings, drillings, and cotton flannels. A large portion of the finer goods is manufactured into calicoes at the Merrimack print works, and a small portion of the coarser fabric is printed at the Hamilton print works. 1,800 yards of broadcloth, and 6,000 yards of cassimere are produced per week, by the Middlesex Company; and 2,500 yards of carpeting, and 150 rugs, measuring one yard and three fourths each, by the Lowell Company, making a weekly aggregate of 1,265,560, and a yearly of 65,809,120 yards. Thus, it will be seen, that this city manufactures a fraction over four and a half yards of cloth per year, for every man, woman, and child in the United States, allowing the population to be fifteen

terests of all. It has been our design not to enter into any discussion, or to engage in exparte demonstrations, but to set forth, in a clear and condensed form, the facts connected with the rise, progress, and present state of the manufacturing interest. As one of the most important branches of our national enterprise, it deserves to be understood thoroughly, and maturely considered by the people, and such a course of legislation should be pursued as will tend to the prosperity of all.

We cannot close this paper without adverting to the mighty revolution which has been effected during the present age by the agency of machinery. Not only has the individual condition of the great bulk of men become changed by its recent introduction among us, but the enterprises of states seem to be undergoing a change through the influences which it appears to be extending. Doubtless its agency will be instrumental in working out a greater amount of good to the great body of the people, in increasing their productive power, and in spreading abroad those comforts and that intelligence which are the peculiar features of our own age. But at the same time, its direct tendency is to abolish, in considerable measure, the sentiment of taste which has thrown a pure coloring over ages past. If Edmund Burke, that distinguished patriot and statesman, could declare, in his own time, that the age of chivalry had departed, with how much greater truth can the remark be made in our own day, when machinery has almost supplanted the ordinary forces formerly used by men, and converted the country into a great workshop. Our tournaments are the annual fairs which are held in the principal marts of the nation ;

millions. 270,000 yards of cloth are dyed and printed per week. The consumption of cotton per week, in all the mills, is 1,025 bales, or 412,000 pounds. The yearly consumption of wool is, in the Middlesex Mills, 600,000, and in the Carpet 489,536 pounds—making together 1,089,536 pounds. The Middlesex Company consumes, per annum, 3,000,000 teasels. All the companies consume, per annum, 11,660 tons of anthracite coals, 3,410 cords of wood, 500,000 bushels of charcoal, 65,289 gallons of oil, 600,000 pounds of starch, and 3,000 barrels of flour for starch.

“The average time of working in the mills per day, is about twelve hours and a quarter. The female operatives remain in the employ of the companies, on an average, a fraction over three years. Their average ages probably range from fifteen to twenty-four. Very few are under fifteen, and not many over twenty-four. The expense of a female employed in the mills, exclusive of board, need not exceed \$40 per annum, even when she dresses elegantly on sabbaths and holidays, and well every day. She may therefore save, in three years, \$186, enough to purchase a small farm in the western country, or to decently furnish a young mechanic's or farmer's house in New England. It is a very important fact, that most of the girls employed in the mills take good care of their earnings. The cashier of the Savings' Bank informs me, that of \$386,000 deposited in that institution, \$250,000 belong to the operatives, mostly females, employed in the factories. Some young females come here from the surrounding country, work a few years, and employ their earnings to aid their fathers to pay small debts: some to procure the means of completing a genteel education at some one of our numerous New England academies. The majority, however, save their money to furnish the houses of their future husbands. It is supposed that their chances of marrying are increased, rather than diminished, by their residence and employment in the city. Not a few are betrothed before they enter the mills; and while the young men, to whom they were to be wedded, are laboring here or elsewhere for the means to purchase a farm and build a house, they labor for the means to furnish it, and in most cases successfully too.*

* For a full and complete tabular statement of the Lowell Manufactures in January, 1840, see *Merchant's Magazine*, vol. iii. p. 92.

and he who bears off the victor's prize, is the man who exhibits the finest yard of broadcloth, or the best cattle. Men now combine mainly to advance mere utilitarian projects, having reference to the mere base and physical nature of man, without, we think, devoting sufficient attention to the pure in taste, which is believed to be allied to the pure in morals. But we rejoice that the weapons of modern political society are great principles of truth and right—not the mere brute power of physical force. The spinning-wheel of our ancestors is discarded, and the spacious factory, with its confused clattering, has taken its place. The old-fashioned pillion has been forgotten, and our citizens ride to their neighbors upon the swift wings of the railroad. The small shallop, which formerly transacted most of the domestic carrying trade, has yielded to the steamboat, which now vexes every sea by machinery. Machinery divests the cotton plant of its seed, transports it to the factory, weaves it into cloth, and then distributes it to the respective markets in all quarters of the globe. The duty which is binding upon our own government, we think, is, to direct these modern agents in such channels, that they may confer upon the people the greatest happiness and comfort, and establish permanently, in the condition of all classes and all interests, the principles of the Constitution.

ART. III.—BRITISH IMPORT DUTIES.

ABSTRACT OF THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON IMPORT DUTIES, AND THE EVIDENCE OF JOHN M'GREGOR, ESQ.

On the 5th of May, 1840, it was "ordered by the British parliament that a select committee should be appointed to inquire into the several duties levied on imports in the United Kingdom; and how far those duties were for protection to similar articles the produce or manufacture of that country, or of the British possessions abroad; or whether the duties were for purposes of revenue alone." The committee appointed consisted of fifteen members, who remained in session one month, and examined twenty-seven witnesses, and subsequently published a very elaborate report, containing a vast amount of evidence of a valuable character, which cannot be attentively perused without producing a strong conviction that important changes should urgently be required in their revenue legislation.

The committee maintained that the tariff of the United Kingdom presents neither congruity nor unity of purpose—that no general principles seem to have been applied, and that it often aims at incompatible ends. The duties are sometimes meant to be both productive of revenue and for protective objects, which are frequently inconsistent with each other: hence they sometimes operate to the complete exclusion of foreign produce, and in so far no revenue can, of course, be received; and sometimes, when the duty is inordinately high, the amount of revenue becomes, in consequence, trifling. They do not make the receipt of revenue the main consideration, but allow that primary object of fiscal regulations to be thwarted by an attempt to protect a great variety of particular interests, at the expense of the revenue and of the commercial intercourse with other countries. The committee were strongly impressed that the effect of pro-

hibitory duties, while they are, of course, wholly unproductive to the revenue, is to impose an indirect tax on the consumer, often equal to the whole difference of price between the British article and the foreign article, which the prohibition excludes. On the article of food alone, it is averred, according to the testimony laid before the committee, that the amount taken from the consumer exceeds the amount of all other taxes which are levied by the government. And the witnesses concur in the opinion, that the sacrifices of the community are not confined to the loss of revenue, but that they are accompanied by injurious effects upon wages and capital : they diminish greatly the productive powers of the country, and limit their active trading relations.

Somewhat similar is the action of high and protective duties. These impose upon the consumer a tax equal to the amount of the duties levied upon the foreign article, whilst it also increases the price of all the competing home-produced articles to the same amount as the duty ; but that increased price goes, not to the treasury, but to the protected manufacturer. It is obvious that high protective duties check importation, and consequently are unproductive to the revenue ; and experience shows that the profit to the trader, the benefit to the consumer, and the fiscal interests of the country, are all sacrificed when heavy import duties impede the interchange of commodities with other nations.

The inquiries of the committee naturally led them to investigate the effects of the protective system on manufacture and labor. They found, on the part of those connected with some of the most important of their manufactures, a conviction, a growing conviction, that the protective system is not, on the whole, beneficial to the protected manufactures themselves. Several witnesses, who were manufacturers, expressed the utmost willingness to surrender any protection they had from the tariffs, and disclaimed any benefit resulting from that protection.

The committee gathered from the evidence laid before them, that while the prosperity of their own manufactures is not to be traced to benefits derived from the exclusion of foreign rival manufactures, so neither is the competition of continental manufacturers to be traced to a protective system. They were informed that the most vigorous and successful of the manufactures on the continent had grown, not out of peculiar favor shown to them by legislation, but from those natural and spontaneous advantages which are associated with labor and capital in certain localities, and which cannot be transferred elsewhere at the mandate of the legislature, or at the will of the manufacturer. The committee had reason to believe, that the most prosperous fabrics are those which flourish without the aid of special favors. It was stated, that the legislation of Great Britain, whenever it is hostile to the introduction of foreign commodities, is invariably urged by the foreign states that produce such commodities, as a ground and a sanction for laws being passed by them hostile to the introduction of products of British industry.

With reference to the influence of the protective system upon wages, and on the condition of the laborer, the committee were convinced that the pressure of foreign competition is heaviest on those articles, in the production of which the rate of wages is lowest ; so it is obvious, in a country exporting so largely as England does, that other advantages may more than compensate for an apparent advantage in the money-price of labor. The countries in which the rate of wages is lowest are not always those

which manufacture most successfully ; and the best service that could be rendered to the industrious classes of the community ; would be to extend the field of labor, and of demand for labor, by an extension of commerce ; and that the supplanting the present system of protection and prohibition by a moderate tariff, would encourage and multiply, most beneficially for the state and for the people, their commercial transactions.

The committee further recommend, that as speedily as possible the whole system of differential duties, and of all restrictions, should be reconsidered, and that a change therein be effected, in such a manner that existing interests may suffer as little as possible in the transition to a more liberal and equitable state of things. The committee have been persuaded that the difficulties of modifying the discriminating duties which favor the introduction of British colonial articles, would be very much abated if the colonies were themselves allowed the benefits of free trade with all the world.

Although the committee were not able to embrace all the several branches which come within the scope of their instructions, yet they thought themselves warranted in reporting their strong conviction of the necessity of an immediate change in the import duties of the kingdom : and should parliament sanction their views, by establishing imposts on a small number of the articles most productive, the amount of each impost being carefully considered with a view to the greatest consumption of the article, and thereby produce the greatest receipt to the customs, they are persuaded that no loss would occur to the revenue, but, on the contrary, a considerable augmentation might be confidently anticipated.

The simplification they recommend, would not only facilitate the transactions of commerce, and thereby benefit the revenue, but would, at the same time, greatly diminish the cost of collection, remove multitudinous sources of complaint and vexation, and give an example to the world at large, which, emanating from a community distinguished above all others for its capital, its enterprise, its intelligence, and the extent of its trading relations, could not but produce the happiest effects, and consolidate the great interests of peace and commerce, by associating them intimately and permanently with the prosperity of the whole family of nations.

In accordance with these general principles the committee elicited, in the course of their inquiries, the following important evidence, which has made a deep impression on the British nation, and has produced an almost universal conviction that their commercial relations demand prompt and important changes.

Mr. M'Gregor, one of the joint secretaries of the Board of Trade, affirmed, that the whole amount of the revenues received for the protection of British manufactures in the year 1839, was £443,355, with the exception of the amount received on cotton and woollen goods, the duties of which he did not consider as protective, inasmuch as neither the manufacturers of the one or the other require any protection ; on the contrary, several manufacturers themselves had avowed to the Board of Trade, that they wanted no protection whatever, while others, immediately after the peace, declared that unless they changed their system they could not succeed ; that is, they must manufacture in large quantities, and instead of going upon the old system of large profits, they must go upon the principle of small profits and great sales. He mentioned, as a curious fact, that some branches of manufacture which are protected—linens and silks, for

example—have been more frequently in a greater state of distress and misery than any others.

The whole amount of cotton manufactures exported from Great Britain in the year 1839, he stated to be £24,552,129, and that of woollen goods £6,679,287. The amount of import duties on cotton manufactures received the same year, was £6,584, and the amount of duty received on woollens £25,113.

The revenue duty on cotton manufactures at 10 per cent, and that on woollen at 15 per cent, he regarded as no protection. The expense of transport, if foreign manufacturers produced them on the spot so much cheaper than British goods, would be equal nearly to 10 and 15 per cent. Every duty, if paid, he considered protective, that exceeds the cost of transporting the goods, produced at the same price, from the country where they are manufactured to the country where they are sold. The fact of the duty being 10 per cent, and the revenue derived on cotton manufactures being only £6,584, were conclusive evidence to him, with perhaps a few exceptions in regard to Germany, that those goods were produced or sold in England as cheap as in other countries, and that they required no protection. The British manufacturers had hitherto produced those articles cheaper than the chief manufacturers abroad; but latterly they had found, in the Mediterranean, that the woollen cloths of the south of France had been produced cheaper than theirs; coarse fabrics from the south of France met them in the foreign market, and had driven their cloths out of the markets of Italy and Egypt to some extent. He was not prepared to say, however, that the present duty will not very soon become a protection, inasmuch as the manufacturers in the south of France, in places in the neighborhood of Aix-la-Chapelle, and in Westphalia, and also in Saxony, possibly in Moravia, may produce woollens at a cost much less than those of Great Britain, as may be equal not only to the expense of transport, but also to the 15 per cent on the import. Although the amount of the exports of British woollens, particularly to the German states, had not diminished since the establishment of the Prussian tariff over the whole of those countries, yet he found, in all parts of Germany, that Americans, and other purchasers for South America and Cuba, came to the fairs of Leipsic and Berlin, and also Vienna, to purchase woollens and cottons, who had before received their entire supplies from Great Britain. It was his belief that the consumption of British woven manufactures had decreased in the states of Germany; but very extraordinary facilities have been afforded under the Prussian system for the transport of goods. He thought that the consumption of British woollen and cotton goods had diminished to the extent of one half in all the Rhenish states. But the general declared value of British and Irish produce and manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to Prussia, Germany, and Holland, during the years from 1833 to 1888, both inclusive, was as follows:

	Prussia.	Germany.	Holland.	Total.
1833	£144,179	£4,855,548	£2,181,893	£6,691,620
1834	136,423	4,547,166	2,470,267	7,153,856
1835	188,273	4,602,966	2,648,402	7,439,641
1836	160,722	4,463,729	2,509,622	7,134,073
1837	131,536	4,898,016	3,040,029	8,069,581
1838	155,223	4,988,900	3,549,429	8,693,552

The consequence has been, since the year 1833, that a much greater quantity of British manufactures have been sold to be sent through and out of the states under the Germanic Union, into other countries, from the facility which has been extended by the Prussian government in respect to the inland warehousing. All importers of respectability, residing within the confederation, are allowed to bring their goods to their own warehouses. In the towns where fairs are held, they are weighed when they are put in ; and at the end of six months the goods remaining are reweighed. On being first weighed, the duty is charged to the merchant in the customhouse books ; they receive credit at the end of six months for all that has been sold for transit, and for what remains on hand, paying up the difference of duty for what has been sold for consumption ; for the goods then remaining on hand the duty is charged against them for another six months ; and the facility thus created by the Prussian government has been found to be very convenient to the importers, for they generally receive the money for the goods they sell before they pay the duties.

He cited some instances of German woollen and cotton goods that were imported to Great Britain to be bonded for exportation ; but he considered it contrary to law to put English marks upon them. He stated that he had various specimens of British marks and cards that were printed for the sales at Frankfort, and that they had been sent out to America, &c., in packages, not in the same cases with the goods, but in another box, to be put upon the goods after their arrival.

Mr. M'Gregor presented the committee a synopsis of twenty enumerated articles on which the duty has been laid to protect their manufactures, and not for the purposes of revenue.* They were incidentally selected, with the view of showing the very small amount of duty that they receive altogether upon manufactures. The amount of revenue in the year 1839, on the twenty articles above referred to, was £402,575, and the amount received for the unenumerated articles was £40,380. He did not think the limited number of articles he had selected a sufficient test of the amount of protection : for, in taking an article on which the duty has undoubtedly been laid as a protective one—on silk manufactures, for example—he found, notwithstanding the high duty, that the legal imports yielded £247,361 nett revenue—more than one half of the whole amount of duty yielded by all other manufactures imported ; which shows, that while they receive a great revenue on silk goods, silk manufactures are manufactured so much cheaper in other countries, as to be able to bear a duty of from 30 to 40 per cent in Great Britain. Nor does the amount of revenue collected upon any article afford a test, in all cases, of the extent of protection. It would be very small if the articles were produced, as nearly as possible, at the same price as they could be produced in another country—that is, with the difference of the protecting duty ; but when we come to the silk manufacture, which yields a revenue of £247,000 a year, and when it is considered that the contraband trade in that article is carried on to a great extent, and that if upon all the silk introduced into Great Britain the duty was paid, the treasury would receive probably more

* Mr. M'Gregor, in the course of his examination, also laid before the committee a revised tariff, the importance of which has induced us to give it a place in a subsequent part of this number. It will not only be useful in showing the existing rate of duties in Great Britain, but will exemplify his views as given in his evidence.—Ed

than £400,000, it is evident that the silk introduced, after paying the cost of transport, and paying the duty of from 30 to 40 per cent, must be manufactured much cheaper, otherwise it would not yield a profit by being imported into that country.

Mr. M'Gregor stated that he had had communication with the head of customs in France, and with others, who assured him that cases and boxes of gloves had been sent to Boulogne and Dieppe for the express purpose of being smuggled into England, which was countenanced by the French customhouse officers at those ports, who assisted frequently in getting the goods off. He further stated that the charge for smuggling was nine per cent upon certain qualities of silk and fine gloves; but for ten and twelve per cent, one can get all but the heavy goods insured into England. He expressed it as his opinion, that the present high duties imposed by the British tariff promotes and encourages smuggling, and, consequently, interferes with the revenue, without saving at all the labor of the country; and he regarded it as a truism, which experience has proved in every country in Europe, that the moment the duty is higher than the premium for smuggling it ceases to be protective. The rate of revenue duty that he would recommend is ten per cent, the same as the premium for smuggling, which he always considered a pretty fair test of the duty being too high. He put all duties above ten to fifteen per cent as protective duties, except upon articles upon which heavy duties are laid on account of not having the same article in the country. The duty on brandy he considered in two senses; in the first place, protective—as protecting British spirits; and in the next, as protecting West India spirits, rum, &c. He also considered it a revenue duty.

In the negotiations that Mr. M'Gregor had had in Austria, France, and the German and Italian states, as a commissioner of the government for the arrangement of commercial affairs, he stated that the simplest tariff that he found in those countries, both in regard to the number of articles and the simplification of the duties, is that of the Germanic Union of customs. The number of rates of duties in the Prussian tariff amount to about 43, while that of the British tariff is 1,150. The basis of the Prussian tariff was calculated to be an *ad valorem* duty of ten per cent upon every article, with the exception of those used in manufacture; raw materials of every description being admitted entirely free, or upon a nominal duty equal to what the French call *droit de balance*, or a duty sufficient to defray the expenses of entry and keeping accounts, and also to ascertain the quantity of articles imported; but the duties upon manufactures being by weight, they vary from two per cent, *ad valorem*, to as high as eighty per cent in some instances, on articles of very coarse manufacture. The original intention was to make the basis of duties ten per cent; but when the question of levying the duty for all the states of the Union came to be settled, levying the duty by weight was preferred, as all the states had but one common customhouse, and as each state received out of the aggregate a proportion of that revenue according to its actual population. For example, out of every hundred dollars or florins raised, Prussia alone received 55; of the remaining 45, the other states received the proportion due them according to their population. Prussia and Saxony, and some other states, feared that in those states bordering on France and Switzerland, if the duty were made an *ad valorem* duty it would lead to corruption on the part of the *employes* on the frontier, in letting in goods at prices lower than

the real values ; and they finally decided that upon all articles liable to be smuggled, the duty should be levied by weight ; and the consequence has been, that upon coarse goods of low value, the duty has averaged as high as about eighty per cent.

Under the Prussian tariff, the general belief was that the new tariff had been adopted for the first time by the whole population of the Union, amounting to about 27,000,000 of people : but previously to the Germanic Union, with regard to the customs, there had been for a long time in Prussia a higher tariff of duties upon woollen cloths, and some other articles, than the tariff of 1839. And in other states, as Bavaria, with a population of nearly 5,000,000, and Wurtemberg, with a population of 1,700,000, Hesse Electorate, with a population of 700,000, and the Duchy of Hesse, with a population of 800,000,—all these, with Prussia, having a population of 23,700,000, had duties nearly as high, and in some instances higher than the tariff of 1839. In other states, having in all the remaining population of 3,300,000, the duties were less ; in the Duchy of Baden and Nassau they were still less ; and in the free town of Frankfort there were no duties at all except town dues. In Saxony, with a population of more than a million and a half, the import duties were very trifling ; and it is a valuable fact in commercial legislation, that in Saxony, a country by no means naturally rich, yet there, without any protection whatever, manufactures of every description have thriven more than in any other part of the continent of Europe.

Switzerland is cited as a country where there are no protective duties whatever ; and the state of their manufactures is such that their cotton goods come into competition with the English, and meet them with very great advantage in their East India markets ; and they are sent to the United States and to the Brazils in very large quantities. On the contrary, the government of most countries, excepting those of Saxony, Switzerland, and Holland, have been led away by the visionary splendor of being able to supply themselves within their own countries with every thing they require. It commenced in France, under Colbert, and it was imitated by other monarchs ; but it has turned out that those countries in which those protections have been completely established, have not at all thriven in consequence of those protections ; and where they have occasionally thriven, they have done so in defiance of them.

When Mr. M'Gregor was at Vienna in 1836, he was informed by Prince Metternich of the great difficulty they had to struggle against the protective system, and since the formation of the Germanic Union of customs, the manufacturers of Bohemia had stated in their petitions that they had some hopes of being able to compete with the fair trader, but that they could never compete with the contraband.

In 1814, when the people of Germany were compelled to become agriculturists instead of being engaged as soldiers, in the course of two or three years they produced a great superabundance of agricultural products, and not being able to find a market for that produce either in England or in France, in both of which the high duties shut out that produce, the excess of labor formerly employed in war and afterward in agriculture went into the manufactures of Westphalia and Silesia. The argument they made use of to Mr. M'Gregor upon every occasion, both in Prussia, Saxony, and in the Rhenish states, and particularly at the two congresses held at Munich, and at Dresden, was this,—“ You compelled us to become

manufacturers; we have not mines of gold and silver, and you would not take what we had to sell you. If you had taken what we had to give, we should have continued to produce it, because we would have found a market for it; but as you would not take it, necessity compelled our people to look out for other occupation, and they were intelligent enough to turn their attention exclusively to manufactures. The German grazier now exchanges his cattle and his beef for fabrics with the home manufacturer, and the corn-dealer and the miller provide bread for the manufacturer, and take his goods and use them in return." This was the common saying in Prussia, where every man is intelligent, and where every man thinks, and where as soon as he sees an effect he immediately inquires into the cause. They have an abundance of all that is necessary to maintain life within themselves; and their industry being directed to manufactures, they are more independent of other countries than those countries are which have not an abundance of food, and wood for fuel and for their buildings. The artisan in the cotton manufacture can subsist himself with equal comfort in Germany at half the expense at which an English artisan can support himself; in Westphalia and the neighborhood of Frankfort, and in Bavaria and Austria, at less than half.

In reference to the real prices of labor, they are stated to be much lower in England than in Saxony and on the continent generally, with the exception of maritime labor, inasmuch as the provisioning of ships is much dearer in England. If ship-owners on the continent even gave the same wages as they do in England, which they do not, they could carry on their shipping more economically, because the provision which is found by the ship-owner for his crew forms an essential part of the wages. Again, if a Hollander, or if a Prussian were compelled to victual his family on shore at the prices paid in England, his wages then would not be to himself more than one half what the same wages are in Prussia; but as he maintains his family in Prussia, the low wages he gets enables him, by the cheapness of provisions in that country, to live as well as an English sailor will who maintains his family in England. The provisioning of a ship is, in every sense of the word, a part of the wages, and wages is what the British ship-owners have greatly to compete against. One of the great advantages that the American ships, and also those of Hamburg, have over the British ship, is the cheapness of provisioning them.

After a laborious investigation in almost every country in Europe, Mr. M'Gregor came to the conclusion that England—with all her natural advantages of position, which no other country possesses in the same degree, and the intelligence and industry of her artisans, together with capital, machinery, and other elements, such as coal and iron, and the superiority of her harbors for exportation, and many other internal advantages as to carriage and intercourse—should have nothing but fiscal taxation, that is, duties for revenue only, have no protection at all; but only equalize upon equitable principles the system of taxing the population for revenue, and they may then meet the people of all other nations with their manufactures in every country in the world, and in most articles undersell them.

With regard to the duties which have been imposed to protect colonial produce, they were considered so high by Mr. M'Gregor, that they amounted, in fact, to prohibition. The articles under restriction in the colonies, in order to protect the sale in Great Britain, he stated to be wood, timber, and salt provisions of every description; and in truth every article of provision

he thought more or less taxed or prohibited. He considered that the annual loss to the revenue from the protective duty on the article of sugar alone, to be £3,000,000, and expressed his belief that it is the cause of the exorbitant price which sugar bears in Great Britain. He estimates the consumption of sugar throughout the kingdom to be three quarters of an ounce to each individual a day. The calculations made when he was at Paris and Vienna were, that each individual who took coffee or tea twice a day consumed two ounces and a half, which is more than double the quantity consumed in Great Britain. This is exclusive of all that would be required, and that to a great extent, in the preserving of fruits, and in various other ways, such as domestic wines, pastry, and many other preparations into which sugar enters.

Mr. M'Gregor's reasons for anticipating so large an addition to the revenue under his proposed duties, are obvious. The duty on Muscovado sugar from the British possessions is 2½*d.* per lb. ; the duty on foreign Muscovado 6½*d.* per lb. When sugar rises above 7*d.* per lb., he asserts that the laboring classes seldom can use any, and with the diminished use of sugar there is a corresponding decrease of tea and coffee ; on the contrary, an increased consumption of sugar would cause an increased consumption of other articles contributing to the revenue, as tea and coffee, while simultaneous reductions in the duty on those articles would not only increase their consumption, but extend their use, as has lately been manifested among the middling and poorer classes, as a substitute for spirituous liquors.

A considerable and influential body of the citizens of Great Britain object to the admission of Brazilian produce at lower duties than at present, because it is cultivated by slave labor. On this point Mr. M'Gregor observed, that by the treaty existing between the two countries, which expires in 1844, it is stipulated that all British produce and manufactures shall be admitted for consumption in Brazil at a duty, the maximum of which is not to exceed 15 per cent ; that the British have no stipulation whatever as to receiving Brazilian produce, except as to its paying no other or higher duties than that of the most favored nations ; and that the Brazilians are anxious to break up the treaty, and, on breaking it up, to give the British notice that they will prohibit all their manufactures entirely if they do not receive their sugars. He stated that the extent of British manufactures that are annually sent to the Brazils amount to about £5,000,000, and that the markets of that country are the best they have for cotton goods, and, unless it be the United States, for all manufactures. He expressed it as his opinion that by the rejection of British manufactures from that country, the condition of the artisans of Glasgow, Manchester, and Birmingham, would be worse than the slaves of Brazil ; for, said he, " the slaves, however deplorable their condition otherwise, are always provided with substantial food, sufficient clothing and lodging : our operatives have no security as to any maintenance, except for the poor rates, which form one of our greatest general taxes, and which is chiefly caused by our protective duties."

On the subject of supplying the general markets with free-labor sugar, Mr. M'Gregor entertained a belief that such an attempt would cause an increased demand for slave-labor sugar. " On common commercial principles," continued he, " where a portion of what is consumed is withdrawn, if you could get the same article elsewhere, you would go in search of it, where purchasable at any profit ; but I believe you would increase the consump-

tion of free-labor sugar by purchasing all sugars in the cheapest markets. All restriction on buying and selling is a despotic interference with industrious and enterprising liberty. Therefore, if we attempt to discourage slave-labor sugar by allowing only the importation of free-labor sugar, we should be liable to have our efforts thwarted by that principle. All interference with the general freedom of trade is to be apprehended, and it has always affected not only the morals but the prosperity of those countries. Even if we draw a distinction between free-labor and slave-labor sugar, it will never succeed; no commerce can flourish as it should if we choke up its natural channels."

On the subject of colonial coffee, it was stated by Mr. M'Gregor, that the effect of the high differential duty on coffee has been the legal evasion of the law, in principle, as to the way of bringing coffee to Great Britain. Cargoes of coffee have been sent from the United Kingdom, and from ports of the continent of Europe, to be landed at the Cape of Good Hope, which is considered to be within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and brought back to the United Kingdom for the purpose of supplying the necessary consumption there. From the 26th of April, 1838, to the 24th of March, 1840, it appears by the returns that eighty-one cargoes, importing more than 21,000,000 pounds of foreign coffee, had arrived in the United Kingdom from the Cape of Good Hope; the duty being on that mode of carrying coffee nine pence a pound; that is, less than if imported direct from foreign countries. The duty, if imported from the country of the growth of the principal part of the coffee, would amount to £1,750,000; the duty saved by the indirect importation would be £750,000, supposing all to be entered for consumption. The expense of sending coffee to the Cape of Good Hope is about one penny, and consequently it arrives in Great Britain at about five pence less duty than if it came direct from the countries of its growth; but if these duties were reduced to an equitable fiscal principle, the article would be cheaper, and the consumption of coffee in that country would no doubt increase to a very great extent, and save a nominal loss to the revenue of about £250,000. The refusal on the part of England to take coffee from the Brazils, undoubtedly limits very much the introduction of British manufactures into that country. In proportion to the exclusion of British manufactures from Brazil, is the increased demand for the manufactures of Germany, Austria, France, and Switzerland.

Mr. M'Gregor was of the opinion that the differential duty upon foreign and colonial timber is exceedingly injurious to the manufacturing interests, and indirectly to British navigation, inasmuch as they are prevented from supplying in return those foreign nations with their manufactures, which they would take in about the same proportion as they took their timber, or their other productions which they may have to export to Great Britain. It was also his opinion that by lowering the duties on foreign and colonial timber, or equalizing them, the revenue derived from them would be increased—which, in 1839, was £1,603,194—to £2,500,000; that all classes would be benefited, timber being so extensively required in all kinds of buildings down to the poor man's cottage, and for so many implements and countless other uses. If the duty were to be levied *ad valorem*, even at the same rate, he thought it would in amount be higher, from its greater value, on foreign timber. It was his belief that the change would not be prejudicial to the colonies, if the useless restrictions with which they are shackled were taken away, and all British customhouses were removed

from them. He stated that he had resided in all the British North American colonies, and it was his opinion that if the restraints upon the trade of those possessions were removed, they would not be long required to continue any protective duty whatever; but while the colonial restrictions are continued, they will be obliged to continue some of those protections. He also considered that removing those restrictions would be no disadvantage whatever to the mercantile navy, inasmuch as if the mercantile navy be increased the British navy will be increased also. As the British nation has, by their legislation, caused merchants and others to embark in undertakings with their capital, which it would be unjust to destroy by other legislation, except upon equitable principles, he would remunerate them for their losses. For example, the province of New Brunswick alone, from existing circumstances, from the labor and industry of the country having been directed so much more to saw-mills and timber-cutting than to agriculture, would experience inconvenience and loss which ought to be guarded against, on the principle of equity, for some time: but none of the other colonies would, to any serious extent, experience injury. Some individual houses would suffer, but it would be economy to the nation; and it would only be justice to remunerate them for their losses, provided they effected a change which would give them at least an additional million of revenue, with far greater advantages to their manufacturers, shipbuilders, and to their whole population.

Mr. M'Gregor felt confident that the colonists themselves would not only be in favor of those restrictions being withdrawn, but would consider it as one of the greatest boons that the home government could extend to them. As far back as 1834 the people of the Canadas expressed the opinion distinctly:—"Remove these restrictions and prohibitions," said they, "and you may legislate as you think wise and fit in regard to the timber duties."

The prohibitions and duties which have been imposed to protect British agriculture and grazing, Mr. M'Gregor considered to have a two-fold effect—the one exclusive, in regard to bread and salted provisions, except when the prices rise to what may be called great scarcity prices; and the other, to keep up the prices generally of the same articles in England. In so doing, they impose upon all the consumers of the United Kingdom the greatest tax to which they are subjected; and whatever adds to the cost of living, takes from the wealth of the country. The higher the tax upon food and articles of necessary consumption, the less must be the means of the people of paying their revenue tax. One great extra taxation occasioned by the price of food is that of throwing people out of employment, preventing them from earning any thing, and by leaving no resources but the poor rates for their maintenance. It diminishes the fund for the employment of labor. Although it seems a contradiction; but still it is a fact borne out by inquiry, that whenever the price of food is high in England, it is found that there are a greater number of the laboring people unemployed; and not only that, but the wages of those employed, in consequence of so many being thrown out of employment, is less than when food is plentiful. The abundance of employment is generally observed to be greatest where food is cheap, which has invariably been the case in France and throughout the Austrian dominions. It has been the result of producing economy in production, and enabling the public to consume the article cheaper, that the wealth of the country is in-

creased, as well as an increased demand for labor ; and with reference to cheap food, it is one of the greatest principles of public and domestic consideration in countries where the people have been always most employed. Belgium and Holland are cited as familiar examples.

Mr. M'Gregor contended that the protective duties of the United Kingdom produce great fluctuations in the demand for labor, and consequently, the distress which occurs among the working classes from time to time. "Those fluctuations," said he, "have been principally the consequence of short crops ; and from there not being a steady demand in England for the agricultural produce of other countries, other countries have not been prepared at all times to supply us ; because, in consequence of our system of averages and fixed duties, a degree of uncertainty has always prevailed on the continent relative to the British market. The consequent shortness of supply, causing high prices for bread and other articles of food, diminishes the means of purchasing and paying for other articles for home consumption, while the increased price of food, at the same time, diminishes employment in manufacturing labor for exportation to other countries ; and the demand for labor is also decreased by the diminished quantity for home consumption, leaving a great surplus to be exported, and which surplus supplies the place of the manufactures that were previously produced when the prices of provisions were low. The steady moderate price of food, the dependent steady demand for labor, the equally dependent demand for manufactures, and the increased or decreased application for parish relief, by those employed, or thrown out of employment, being made in fact by our legislation, not on any measure of certainty, but on the changes of the wind, or the rise and fall of the barometer."

If there was a fixed duty on corn, however objectionable that duty might be, it was his belief that there would be something like certainty as to the trade in that article between foreign countries and England. In that case the trade would be like most other trades not placed under variable and uncertain restrictions ; it would lead to a more natural exchange of commodities between England and other countries, and a large amount of revenue would be collected thereby ; for it is evident that the greatest revenue that can be collected is from those articles which are most consumed, and certainly of corn the people would consume the most. If there was a low fixed duty on corn and other provisions, it would relieve the people from taxes levied on other articles, and bring wines and other luxuries more within their reach ; and not only that, continued he, "but I am convinced that, with the present corn laws, it will be impossible to maintain the present rents of land, inasmuch as if the present corn laws are continued, the inevitable consequence will be that persons of capital in this country, and men of ingenuity, will do what the landlords cannot do ; that is, they will remove with their capital and their industry to other countries, whereas the lands cannot be removed ; and if you remove the manufacturing industry from the neighborhood of agricultural lands, you reduce the rents of those lands, as has taken place under similar circumstances in every country in the world. In the neighborhood of many commercial towns, Liverpool and Manchester for example, lands which pay a rent of from £3 to £6 per acre, would scarcely be considered fit for any sort of cultivation in places distant from the seats of trade and industry. These lands would become what they were formerly, only fit for rabbit warrens. In various parts of Germany the rents are not one-

tenth part what they were one hundred years ago, occasioned entirely by the removal of the manufactures; for example, in the neighborhood of Ausbury, which was once a flourishing imperial city, the rents at that period were immense; the landlords were, during the prosperity of trade and manufactures, led to build some of the finest palaces in Europe: those palaces are now deserted, or turned into post-houses, or inns, or barracks, or hospitals; nobody is living in them of the name or family of those who constructed them. The same may be said of every town where manufactures once flourished, and which bad laws and bad government have been instrumental in destroying. Desolation has been the consequence of the withdrawal of that flourishing industry, and the same is to be found in every other country in every period of the history of mankind, under similar circumstances."

W. Phillips.

ART. IV.—GENERAL AVERAGE.*

ITS APPLICATION TO LIGHTERAGE AND FREIGHT.

A VESSEL, on a voyage from Europe to New York, was stranded sixty or seventy miles from New York. The underwriters sent an agent to preserve the cargo in the first place, and if practicable, also the ship—though there was very slight expectation of saving her, as there had been no instance of getting off a ship that had been stranded on the same coast. A greater part of the cargo was landed; but a small part, consisting of iron and a few packages of goods, could not be got out, there being a great deal of water in the hold. The cargo thus landed, was brought on to the port of destination by other conveyance.

The vessel, by help of empty casks and lightwood to buoy her up, was got off, and was towed to New York by a steamboat.

On these facts the following questions are proposed:

1. Are the expenses of getting off the vessel with the small quantity of the cargo left on board, general average?

2. Are the charges of bringing the cargo from the place of stranding to the port of destination general average, or are they to be paid by freight?

1. The expenses of floating the ship is doubtless to be adjusted by an average on the ship and the part of the cargo remaining on board at the time of floating her, and which could not before be got at to be landed.

Upon the same principle, the expense of landing the rest of the cargo would have been adjusted as an average on the ship and cargo, if it had been landed for the purpose of lightening the ship and floating her. But as it was landed for the purpose of saving the cargo itself merely, and not that of floating the ship, I do not see that the ship is liable for any part of that expense, since the proceedings for floating the ship appear to have been subsequent, and entirely independent of the discharging of the cargo.

But the expense of getting off the vessel certainly cannot be a general average upon the whole cargo saved. In the case of *Heyliger vs. N. Y.*

* Furnished for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine*, by ZEPHOR COOK, JR. Esq., President of the Mutual Safety Insurance Company.

Firemen's Insurance Co., 11 Johnson's Rep. 85, the expense of saving the cargo and materials of the wrecked ship were adjusted in general average. In that case the court say, "the expense of conveyance in another vessel or boat, strictly so considered, ought to fall on the shipowner, and not on the shipper of the goods." They distinguished between the expense of saving the property, that is, rescuing it from the situation in which it was liable to be destroyed, and the transportation of the cargo from the place of the wreck to the port of destination. As far as labor and expense are bestowed indiscriminately for the benefit of different interests, those interests contribute proportionally, and whether this is called general or particular average will make no difference in the amount of the loss on each interest. But the moment the vessel and cargo become separated—and what is done for saving either has no effect in regard to saving the other—the principle of general average ceases. This is the doctrine of the case above cited. The transportation of the cargo is held to be a charge upon freight—that is, if the freight exceeds the expense; for it cannot be supposed that the shipowner will pay a greater amount than the freight for the purpose of earning freight. He must hire another ship, if it is reasonable that he should; but it is not reasonable that he should be required to hire another ship at an expense greater than the whole amount of freight. Suppose vessels to go sixty or seventy miles from New York to take out the cargo of a wrecked vessel and bring it on to New York, and the cargo is taken directly from the wrecked vessel on board of the lighters; this mixes up the expense of *saving* and that of *forwarding* the cargo. It is not easy to say what expense is incurred for salvage, and what for transportation. But suppose the cargo to be fished out of the wreck, landed and stored in a safe place, and that it is then re-shipped and forwarded, the expense of salvage and that of transportation are distinct. Here the shipowner has a right, if he so elects, to re-ship the cargo and forward it, and entitle himself to freight. The case admits of an easy and plain adjustment upon this principle. But in the case first supposed, as it is not obvious what was the expense of salvage, and what that of transportation, there is not the same facility in making the adjustment; still this can make no difference in the principle by which the case is governed. Though it is a matter of some difficulty to distinguish the expense of salvage from that of transportation, yet this is a difficulty of settling the facts, and not one of determining the principles applicable to the case. When it is once determined what expense belongs to each description, the case is determined; and in such case, if the forwarding of the goods is impracticable, or if the expense of the forwarding exceeds the whole freight for the voyage, so that the owner elects not to forward them for the sake of earning freight, the question becomes one of total or partial loss on the cargo.

I think, then, that the expense of getting off the vessel is not a subject of contribution by the part of the cargo landed before the vessel was floated. The shipper of those goods had no interest whatever in the floating of the vessel. And the fact of the vessel's afterward proceeding to the port of destination was entirely indifferent to him; so long as she did not take his goods, it was immaterial to him what port she next made, or whether she made any. This shows conclusively that he is not liable to contribute to the subsequent expense of floating the vessel.

The only question in this respect is, whether the vessel, if she is event-

ually saved, and the freight, if it be eventually earned by transshipping the goods, shall contribute towards the expense of landing the cargo taken out of the vessel as she lay stranded; for if it was taken out for the three-fold purpose of lightening the vessel that she might be floated, of saving the goods, and of eventually earning freight, then all three interests must contribute to this expense as far as those objects are attained—that is, to the extent of the amount and in the proportion of the ship, freight, and cargo saved. But if the cargo is taken out merely for the purpose of saving it, without any reference to getting off the vessel, the latter is not liable to contribute for that expense, even though incidentally the floating of the vessel may be thereby facilitated. But if it be matter of doubt whether the discharging the cargo was for the double purpose of saving both that and the ship, the more obvious construction seems to be, that it was for the double purpose, if that be the actual result. This doubt cannot, however, be applicable to the subsequent expense of floating the vessel, and navigating her to the port of destination. There is no room for the supposition that the cargo can be benefited by that expense.

2. Are the charges of bringing the cargo from the place of stranding to the port of destination general average, or are they to be paid by freight?

These questions have been already answered. After the cargo is landed and forwarded by other conveyance to the port of destination, the shipper cannot possibly be benefited by the floating of the ship, and the navigating her to the same or any other port; and this shows conclusively that he is not liable to contribute any part of the expenses incurred for those purposes.

As to the expense of transporting the cargo being defrayed out of freight, this must depend on the fact whether it is done to earn freight—that is, on its being more or less than freight; for if it be more, it is absurd to suppose that the owner of the vessel incurs this greater expense for the purpose of entitling himself to a less amount, viz, freight. In such a state of the facts, the question is one of total or partial loss of the cargo; for in consequence of a peril insured against, the cargo has been brought into a situation whereby the voyage insured is defeated as to the cargo, or the shipper, in order to accomplish the voyage as to his goods, is subjected to an expense of transportation greater than the stipulated freight. The underwriters must either pay this extra expense, or pay a total loss on the goods, which could be avoided only by incurring such extra expense. The underwriter on the goods has stipulated that the ship shall not be prevented by the perils insured against from transporting the goods to the port of destination; the ship has been thus prevented from transporting them to that port; they must, therefore, either pay a total loss, or pay at least the extra expense incurred to avert it.

W. P.

J. Cook,

ART. V.—A QUESTION ON AVERAGE.

It sometimes happens that a vessel at sea loses her rudder, or parts a stay, or some other of her standing rigging, by which she is in danger of losing her masts, or she springs a dangerous leak, when it becomes necessary to apply certain articles, that were put on board for other purposes, to a temporary repair of these accidental damages; and a question arises

as to the manner in which such a use of them is to be compensated for—whether they are to be considered and treated as a partial loss, or made the subject of a general contribution.

In the opinion of writers on insurance, “no authorities are requisite to show that this is a subject of general contribution;” yet there are some who affect to doubt the correctness of these views, and contend, that as the damage was casual, its repairs should be adjusted as a partial loss.

A merely superficial view of the case might very naturally lead to such a conclusion, while a deliberate examination would doubtless tend to an opposite and more reasonable and just result.

It is not the magnitude of the sacrifice, but its quality, that determines the principle of a contribution. A voluntary sacrifice of any thing belonging to a vessel, whether it be of her appurtenances, or of the goods of her lading, when made for the general safety, is in law and in practice admitted to constitute an undoubted claim for general contribution; and in most, if not all cases, a voluntary sacrifice, in whatever form it occurs, is preceded by, or is intended to avert, a further accidental damage; and whether the sacrifice so made be for prevention or remedy, it is equally the subject of general average contribution.

To the practical insurer it would seem to be unnecessary to cite authorities in support of the right of the owner of a vessel to claim indemnity for a sacrifice deliberately made with a view to the preservation of the interests at risk, whether the sacrifice be that of a jettison, the cutting away of masts, the slipping from, or cutting away of a cable, or the cutting up of spars, or any other appurtenances, for an extraordinary purpose, or their application to any use other than their original one, for means of preservation, or in mitigation of an impending peril.

We had supposed, until recently, that the principle was universally admitted by practical insurers, as it is by elementary writers; and we believe that the exceptions are only to be found among those who have not given to the subject that consideration, and applied that liberal rule of construction, that is requisite to a just and proper disposal of the question; for whether they are willing to allow that the extraordinary applications of the articles constitute a claim for contribution, or otherwise, they cannot deny that the cutting up of spars, or of cables and hawsers, by which means they are rendered useless for their original purposes, is a sacrifice, to all intents and purposes, of just so much in value as it would cost to replace them, and just as much a sacrifice as would be a jettison of property of equal value.

The requisites necessary to make a valid claim for restitution are as follow. When it is demanded, the ship must be in actual distress; the thing intended to be destroyed must be expressly selected for that purpose; the sacrifice must be made *premeditatedly* and *deliberately*; and the end in view must be no other than that of the general preservation. Abstractedly considered, the mind and agency of man must be employed; the act must be preceded by foresight, and attended by volition. When *recompense* is claimed, it must be clearly shown that services have been performed out of the *ordinary course* of the voyage, and which had no *partial* advantage in prospect, but were absolutely intended for the general benefit. Stevens on Av., Part I. ch. i. sec. 1.

And the same authority is referred to to show, that “SAILS, ROPES, and OTHER MATERIALS, CUT and USED at sea for the purpose of stopping a leak,

or to rig jury-masts, or for any other purpose, where the general safety appears to require the sacrifice," constitute an undoubted claim for general contribution.

Now it is not contended that the mind and agency of man were employed in producing the injury, for that was accidental ; but it cannot be denied that they were instrumental in its reparation, and were exerted to preserve the property that had become jeopardized by the casualty, and the means devised for this purpose necessarily involved a sacrifice of something of more or less value, and that sacrifice was a voluntary act, and as such constitutes a claim for recompense by a general average contribution ; and in these views we are sustained by the concurrent testimony of all elementary writers upon the subject of insurance, either directly or indirectly, as well as by the practice of insurers in the common and ordinary application of the principles of general average.

The cutting away of a mast, or the cutting or slipping of a cable, or the jettison of the cargo, are either preceded by an accidental damage, or done to prevent or ameliorate it. Thus a vessel may be thrown on her beam-ends by a sudden squall, when to enable her to resume her upright position, it may be necessary to cut away her masts ; or being at anchor, she may be struck adrift, and in danger of being precipitated upon a reef or shoal, when the cable is cut, or slipped, to facilitate her getting under way to avoid the impending peril ; or she springs a leak, and jettison of the cargo is resorted to, or a sail is used to fother her to stanch the leak. All these measures are superinduced by or are the consequence of a casualty ; but we never yet knew it to be maintained, that because these several or individual sacrifices were thus preceded, they were to be borne by the owners or insurers of the vessel in the nature of a particular average or partial loss ; but on the contrary, that it is universally admitted that they constitute an undoubted claim for general average contribution.

Wherein, then, we would inquire, consists the difference in the quality of such sacrifices, from that of cutting up spars, cables, or hawsers, for a temporary repair at sea, when but for such an application of them, the vessel and cargo, and the crew, being in great jeopardy, would probably be lost ? To say nothing of a *liberal*, we will merely ask for a *reasonable* construction of the case, and whether, upon a deliberate and dispassionate view of it, or a critical examination, it can be perceived why one should be accounted a sacrifice, and the other not ? Why the throwing overboard, in a season of peril, the materials, or applying them to an extraordinary purpose for the general safety, can change the principle of indemnity ?

The application of the appurtenances of a vessel as has been suggested, is, as we conceive, clearly a voluntary sacrifice ; they are diverted from the original and ordinary use for which they were designed ; they cannot be restored to their original form ; spars or cables, once severed, cannot be reunited for any practical uses afterward : why, then, if they are thus appropriated with a view to preserve the vessel and cargo, should not these interests be held to contribute for the means thus devoted to their preservation ?

If such an extraordinary use or application of the materials of a vessel, as we have here referred to, is not a voluntary sacrifice, and meant to minister to the preservation of all the interests exposed to a common danger ; and if such an application of them does not constitute an essential ingredient in general average, of which *jettison* is the foundation, or as it

is termed, "the most ancient and legitimate source of average contribution," we are at a loss to perceive the distinction that is attempted to be made between such a sacrifice, and that of voluntary cutting away the masts, or cutting or slipping of a cable, when all the interests are jeopardized by extraordinary sea perils, and the act is performed with a view to their preservation.

ART. VI.—CULTURE OF SILK IN THE UNITED STATES.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

THE following remarks* were made at the last annual fair of the American Institute. In compliance with the request of T. B. WAKEMAN, Esq., the corresponding secretary of that institution, I enclose them for publication in your Magazine. The culture of silk, although of the greatest importance to the welfare and commercial prosperity of the country, has lost much of its interest, from the fact of its having been already thoroughly agitated, and unfortunately treated by some ill-disposed persons with ridicule, if not contempt.

The experience of more than half a century has effectually convinced every person conversant with the culture of silk, that our soil, our climate, our pure and dry atmosphere, and our silvery waters, are evidently adapted to the production of silk. It is proved almost with a mathematical precision that we could, in a short time, not only dispense with silk of foreign origin, but even supply the European markets with this highly valued article, of our own production. The ever-increasing importation of every kind of foreign silk into the United States, and the unfavorable balance of our commerce with foreign nations, imperiously require some efficient measures to increase our agricultural products, and to diminish the ruinous drain upon our resources.

The production of silk is unquestionably destined to fill the dangerous *deficits* left in our domestic and public economy by our unlimited speculations, and by our extravagant luxuries.

The culture of silk is the principal source of the riches of every country where it is properly and diligently pursued. The Lombard Venetian kingdom, having a territorial extent of about one half of the state of New York, with a population a little above four millions, exported in 1833, 6,132,950 pounds unmanufactured silk. The United States, having a soil and climate eminently adapted to the culture of silk, imported in a single year twenty-three millions of dollars of manufactured silk ; and this, whilst our people were laboring under the consequences of a tremendous crisis just past, and threatened with a more destructive one ; whilst our finances and public treasury were in the most embarrassing difficulties.

It is, however, to be lamented that at the very moment when some enterprising and philanthropic men were trying their utmost exertions to give an impulse in this country to the culture and manufacture of silk, the

* Mr. Tinelli, the author of these remarks, is a native of Italy, where he was long engaged in this branch of industry. He is now an adopted citizen of the United States, and is devoting his time and experience to the same object.

evil spirit of monopoly and speculation, which is often in the way of all enterprises of public utility, came to throw new obstacles in the accomplishment of patriotic views. Men, who never had the slightest idea of producing silk, taking advantage of a momentary excitement which existed among the farmers and the promoters of the culture of silk, undertook to monopolize the commerce of mulberry trees. The extravagant and almost ridiculous speculations which took place in that article, became proverbial. That business ended where it ought to end—disappointments and failures were the consequences of a feverish thirst of sordid gain; and what is more to be lamented, the delusions and disappointments of some speculators in trees have spread discouragement and dissatisfaction among many persons who positively intended to make the culture of silk one of the principal branches of husbandry, and an object of agricultural pursuit.

But as the good sense of the public generally succeeds in deriving some good from evil, that very extravagant speculation in mulberry trees produced good effects respecting the culture of silk. Many persons, who had planted in large quantities the favorite *Morus Multicaulis*, having been disappointed in their expectations, and not finding a market for their trees, they thought to make them useful by applying their production to their proper real destination—the feeding of silk-worms. Cocoons to an immense amount have been produced this very season in many states, and especially in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut; and a great many more would have been produced if cocoons could find a ready market—if silk filatories were established at different parts of each state, where the farmers could readily sell their cocoons.

However, some of those experiments have not been crowned with satisfactory success. The art of rearing silk-worms and reeling silk, embracing many details and much information, perfection cannot be obtained but by repeated experiments and a continued practice. Every error is a step towards the truth. And the numerous specimens of cocoons and silk now exhibiting at your fair will carry conviction to every mind, that a gigantic progress has already been made in the seropedic art, and that the production of silk is not a chimera, but an ascertained fact in the United States.

The causes of those failures, and of the disappointments with which the patriotic attempts of many silk-growers have been attended, are to be found especially in the want of practical knowledge in regard to the choice of the quality of their silk-worms, their management, and the cure of their distempers. A capital point in the art of rearing silk-worms, is a good choice of the eggs and good management in their hatching. Some farmers have purchased the silk-worm's eggs at distant places; in advanced season they brought them home agglomerated in small boxes or bottles, where the privation of air, and a fermentating process, caused a complete destruction of the vital principle of the insects, or rendered imperfect and very precarious their hatching. Eggs, when taken from distant places, ought to be transported in a cold season, and before March, and kept at home in a cool and dry place, from which they must be taken and exposed gradually to a higher temperature, when the time for their hatching approaches. The bad construction of the rooms where the worms have been raised—the want of a constant ventilation—the use of wet or spoiled leaves of mulberry trees, and the fermentation produced by the agglomerated remnants of the food, have, in many instances, generated

distempers among the silk insects, and destroyed the fruits of long exertions and labor. It is to be hoped that experience and perseverance will guide our farmers to better results in their future experiments. But let us now examine the question whether the art of raising silk-worms and spinning silk, will indubitably be a source of advantage and profit to such persons as engage in the business. To those men who are always ready to display their opposition whenever a new object of enterprise is presented to their view, we must answer by asserting facts, the truth of which can be daily defined.

The average crop of foliage yielded by an acre of trees in hedge rows, will be at least fifteen thousand pounds for the first year, and twice as much for the ensuing years. The largest quantity of leaves consumed in the feeding of the worms hatched from one ounce of eggs, is one thousand five hundred pounds, and the smallest quantity of cocoons produced will be at least eighty pounds, that is to say, eight hundred pounds of cocoons at least will be produced by an acre of land. Calculating the cocoons to be sold at the lowest rate, that is to say, at thirty cents a pound, we shall have a product of two hundred and forty dollars per acre of land, taking the *minimum* as a standard in all my calculations. If the operation should be undertaken on a larger scale, then, of course, some deduction must be made for additional barns or buildings, and for hiring a larger number of hands during the six weeks of operation. I am aware that my estimate is far below what other patrons of the culture of silk have exhibited in their statements, which are certainly more brilliant and more seducing ; but I must observe, that in this respect any exaggeration, any disappointment, would operate against our views rather than in our favor.

Another objection, and even with some shadow of truth, is made against the profitableness of reeling cocoons into silk. The want of practice in spinning cocoons among our countrywomen, and the high wages paid for every kind of work in this country, will certainly prevent the production of silk from becoming a profitable undertaking. We cannot compete, (thus say our opponents,) in this art, with countries where labor is at a very low rate, where the wages are 75 per cent below that of our working classes.

I beg leave to observe, that in the production of unmanufactured silk, the largest capital is constituted by the value of the raw material, and the expenses for labor are very trifling. As I have always insisted upon the necessity of establishing large filatories, and as I always thought that reeling silk would prove profitable, when undertaken on an extensive scale, I will suppose a filature of 50 reels, having 50 female spinners and 50 girls to turn the *hasps*. 50 women, according to the present price of labor, will cost, board and lodging included, 16 dollars a month, making \$800
Fifty girls, - - - - - 500

Two men,	40
Three women to pick cocoons,	48
One superintendent,	50
Wood or coal for 50 furnaces, at 8 cents per day for each furnace a month,	112
Sundries,	20
	<hr/> \$1,570

The average of silk produced by 50 skilful women per day, will be at least 70 pounds, or 1960 pounds per month, which quantity, calculated at only \$5 a pound, will give a gross proceed of \$9,800
Charges deducted, - - - - - 1,570

Nett proceeds, - - - - - \$8,230

I will suppose that a whole bushel of cocoons will produce a pound of silk, if the cocoons are of good quality, and I calculate the cocoons at the fair price of \$3 per bushel, for 1960 pounds of silk, or 1960 bushels of cocoons, at the rate of \$3 per bushel, 5,880

There will be a nett profit of \$2,350 every month on a filature of only 50 reels.

You must observe, also, that the great advantage peculiar to this country, highly favored by nature over Italy and France, of producing two and three crops of cocoons in one year, and the abundance of wood and coal, and the facility of building houses at a moderate expense, will at any time enable us to sustain advantageously competition with silk of foreign production, if the same protection were afforded to that branch of industry as is granted by our tariff to the manufacture of cloth, muslin, and other articles.

But it is almost in vain to attempt the introduction of a new species of industry, a new art or manufacture, without governmental aid. Our constitution happily imparts to our government the right as well as the duty to protect the arts and industry of its citizens, and expressly ordains that "congress shall have power to regulate commerce." The existence of that power implies an imperative duty to make use of it. Acting on this wise principle, our laws protect the author's copyright, protect the American tonnage, in behalf of the shipbuilder. A tax is imposed upon almost every imported article, even of the most common use and necessity. Standing insulated and alone, by a most strange anomaly, silk goods, the luxury of the wealthiest part of our population, are not comprised in our customhouse laws. Thus the activity, enterprise, and costly efforts of those of our agriculturists and manufacturers, whose activity, zeal, and industry are devoted to the culture of silk, in order thereby to form a new national staple, are sacrificed by the overpowering competition of foreign fabrics introduced free of duties.

May, therefore, our people, may our legislators, be duly impressed with the truth, that a duty imposed upon all foreign silks imported into the United States, effects a diminution of the importation of foreign silk; that such a diminution amounts to an increase of the production of our domestic silk, and that such an increase of our production will gradually free our country from every indebtedness to foreign nations, and complete the sacred work of our independence.

L. T.

ART. VII.—PROTECTION vs. FREE TRADE.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

SIR :—Having already been repeatedly favored by you with an opportunity to defend the great principle of Protection to Industry, in your work, I feel that it would be an unworthy return for your kindness to claim a dozen more pages wherein to answer my "Free Trade" opponent's last article, and continue the discussion. I will not so tax your liberality, nor the good-nature of your readers. Indeed, sir, I am very well content to leave the general argument where I have already placed it. If the enlightened public, on a calm comparison of what I have written with the counter essays of my opponent, decide against me, I submit. I have merely presented, as concisely as I may, the considerations which have induced a large majority of the most eminent statesmen the world has known, to give their best energies to the cause of protection. If such men as Pitt, Napoleon, Canning, Hamilton, Webster, Clay, H. Niles, &c., have groped through life in utter ignorance of the first principles of political economy, the blindness of so humble an individual as myself cannot excite astonishment. Without desiring to press the discussion further, I will now barely note one or two mistakes in my opponent's last article.

1. He commences with the broad assertion, that "governments are *quite as likely* to extend their 'fostering, protecting aid' to a branch of industry for which the country is *not at all adapted*, as to one for which it has a natural capacity." Now it would have been just as easy to assert that governments are as likely to hang saints as felons—to punish uprightness as forgery. And it would have been easy not only to assert this, but to adduce facts, after his fashion, in support of it. Have not multitudes of great villains lived honored and law-protected? And were not Christ, Socrates, and others of the wisest and best, condemned by law, and executed according to law? The inference is direct,—Away with all laws! they punish 'the innocent quite as often as the guilty!' But the man who can seriously assert that our government is '*as likely* to protect a branch of industry to which the country is not at all adapted' as any other, is certainly beyond the reach of my powers of argumentation.

Whether France is so idiotic as he supposes, in protecting the manufacture of beet-sugar, is of course a matter of opinion. It seems a pity her Say, Arago, Chaptal, Guizot, &c., could not listen to one hour's lecturing of my opponent, and thereby save their country six millions per annum on its sugar alone! But when it is considered how difficult to obtain, and how costly when obtained, was the sugar consumed in France in 1811, when such blockheads as Bonaparte and his counsellors undertook to protect and foster the home manufacture of that article, I must think their ignorance of political economy deserving of some compassion!

2. I shall try to answer all my opponent says against countervailing duties by a single question,—*Is he opposed to the Navigation Act?* Great Britain and other nations say to us, "We allow goods imported in our own vessels a deduction of five, ten, or twenty per cent from our regular duties. We do this from no ill will to you, but to encourage our own marine." Now, how shall we treat this? According to the doctrines of Protection or those of Free Trade? One thing is certain. Without countervailing the discrimination, our shipping must be driven from all share in the car-

rying trade with the discriminating nations ; so, without a dissenting voice, we have countervailed. What would my opponent have us do in the premises ? I have tried to learn already, but without success.

3. My opponent cannot escape my illustration of the truth, that *nomi- nally low* may often be *actually high* prices, by his poor perversion about "cider and turkeys at Londonderry." My illustration was necessarily drawn on so small a scale that every one could see it, but the principle covered the whole ground. The same influences that raised the price of "cider and turkeys" at Londonderry, raised that also of flour at Rochester, and pork at Cincinnati. I do not believe there is a producing interest, or a county in the Union, what would not be directly vastly benefited by our manufacturing at home the cloths, hardware, &c., we now import from England.

4. I do not contend that a free trade between different nations is one "equally taxed," as my opponent gratuitously asserts, but one equally *un* taxed. Strictly, free trade implies the absence of all imposts ; but I am an advocate of *fair* trade—a trade mutually advantageous and just to both parties—or none. My Oregon illustration was intended to show that a trade *really* free would not always benefit an infant settlement or a country just emerging from barbarism. I will not go over the ground—which seems to me unshaken by my opponent—but I ask a moment's attention to his manifest unfairness. My illustration supposed that the new Oregon settlement *could not sell* its bulky products in any way but by bringing them across to St. Louis—in other words, not at all. *Under such circumstances*, I maintained that it would be policy in that country to impose a protecting tariff, and manufacture for herself. And my opponent professes to answer this by saying, "*barter* your mountains of grain and beef which you cannot consume, for those articles which you pressingly need." In this strain he amplifies triumphantly. Is this discussion ?

Of course I have said nothing in opposition to credit, either individual or international. I am in favor of the former, and not averse to the latter under circumstances which render it desirable. But running up a heavy balance, year after year, with a foreign nation, by buying of that nation articles which we could easier produce than pay for, and for which she will take scarcely any of our products in return, is utterly inconsistent with my ideas both of proper credit and of fair trade. My opponent cannot see how the manufacturers of a protected country can ruin those of an unprotected one, except by lowering the price of their mutual products. I think he must be the only reader of my illustration by the case of France and England who did not see this. The protected manufacturers have a steady, stable, reliable home market, securing them a certain and uniform business and profit. They throw their surplus and refuse stock into the market of their free trade neighbors, causing a sudden depression. They sell, for instance, all their surplus razors thus at cost and charges—say five dollars a dozen—and thereby glut the market. The rival free trade manufacturers now find their sales forestalled—they cannot sell at all. They are ruined and fail, and next year the protected fabricators have *both* markets to themselves, and can get six dollars a dozen for all they can produce. Free trade has produced fluctuation, temporary depression, and the ruin of its devotees ; while the average cost of razors is left as high as, perhaps higher than, ever. In fact, my opponent, though "*weary of answering positions which seem so manifestly erroneous,*" evi-

dently feels the force of this illustration, and urges that "the *moderate duty* required for the support of the government would prove a sufficient *protection*." I submit that this is giving up the free trade ground, which implies that *all* duties are an injury to the public interests and an obstacle to national prosperity—to be endured, if at all, only as a lesser evil than direct taxation.

Respectfully,

R. G.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.*

INTERESTING MERCANTILE LAW CASE.

United States Circuit Court.—In Equity—before Judges Thompson and Betts.—April term, 1841. The United States vs. William Couch, survivor, &c. and another.—The prayer of the bill demanded an account in respect to effects and moneys alleged to have belonged to the late firm of Castro and Henriquez, and that the right of the plaintiff thereto, in preference to others, might be decreed, and the amount applied on outstanding judgments and customhouse bonds in favor of the United States against Castro and Henriquez. The bill presented this state of facts; that Castro and Henriquez, prior to April, 1823, had been in partnership, carrying on the distilling business in this city; and in connection with that business, imported merchandise, and became indebted to the United States on customhouse bonds to a large amount. On the 20th April, 1823, the firm stopped payment, then being indebted to the United States on duty bonds for over \$74,000. Henriquez was at that time in Europe. The business of the concern was managed by Castro, who also had a full power of attorney from Henriquez. On the day of their failure, or the day following, Castro made an assignment of the property of the firm and that of himself, to Lewis A. Brunell, and immediately departed from New York, without the knowledge of his creditors. On the same day, proceedings were taken under the state act against Castro and Henriquez as absconding or absent debtors, by the defendant Couch, (and his then partner Stebbins,) and others of their creditors.

A few days thereafter, Castro returned to the city, and his assignment to Brunell being supposed imperfect or insufficient in law, he resumed and cancelled it, and executed another, prepared under the advice of counsel, in which he assigned all the partnership estate, and all his individual estate, to Brunell, for the payment of the debts of the partnership, giving preference to the debts due the United States.

That prior to the failure, the firm had consigned to Stebbins and Couch large quantities of distilled spirits for sale, some of which had been sold on credit, and some remained unsold on the day of their failure, but has been since sold and the proceeds realized, which are now held by the defendant Couch, (survivor of Stebbins and Couch.) That after the assignment, Brunell, the assignee, placed like property, belonging to Castro and Henriquez, in the hands of Stebbins and Couch, the avails of which defendant has received and yet retains; and also, that Brunell carried on the distillery of Castro and Henriquez, with their stock assigned him, and consigned the liquors to Stebbins and Couch for sale, and that the proceeds of such sale are retained by the defendant.

The bill also avers that judgments have been recovered by the United States

* Reported expressly for the Merchants' Magazine.

on the customhouse bonds, and executions thereon have been returned unsatisfied, to the amount of \$24,000, which Brunell is unable to satisfy; and it charges that the United States are entitled to have such proceeds (realized by Stebbins and Couch) applied to the satisfaction of the balance.

The bill was filed, April, 1832—Couch filed his answer, January, 1833. The cause was brought to hearing, Dec., 1840.

The cause was argued by Messrs. Butler and Paine for the United States, and by Mr. D. Lord, jr. for the defendant.

The court remarked, that there might be a serious difficulty in the present posture of the case, in giving the plaintiff the relief sought, if the merits were beyond all question on that side. The action rests upon the authority of the United States vs. Howland, (4 Wheat. 108,) and in its institution conformed to that precedent; but has since varied from it by discharging the assignee from the suit.

That the original debtors, (Castro and Henriquez,) or their assignee, seemed to be indispensable parties to a bill of this description, not only for the purpose of discharging the debtor from his liabilities to those from whom he received the funds, and to authorize the institution of a new *cestui que trust* in their place; but also, because an accounting is called for, and the equity of the United States can only intercept what is due the party directly responsible to them, on a just amount taken between such party and his debtor. The assignee ought therefore to have been retained a party to the taking of such account, to enable the court to decree definitively upon the rights of all interested in the subject matter.

This formal difficulty might be obviated, if the case as now disclosed established any right in the United States upon the merits,—unless the staleness of the claim and the extraordinary delays in prosecuting it should be regarded as outweighing any equity on the part of the United States, to amend the proceedings.

The unvaried construction of the 65th section of the act of March 2, 1799, settles this point, that the priority therein given the United States, to be paid out of the estate of an insolvent debtor, takes effect only when the insolvency is established by an assignment of all his property, either by his own act, or by act of law, and when such assignment is carried into execution by the assignee. (4 Wheat. 108. 1 Peters' R. 386. 10 Peters' R. 597. 12 Peters' R. 102. 3 Cranch, 73. 8 Cranch, 431. 1 Paine's R. 183. ib. 629.) The evidence on the part of the plaintiff is very faint upon this head, and it is in no respect aided by the answer. There is ground for implication that Brunell took control of the partnership effects as assignee, yet the evidence equally comports with his having acted merely as factor or agent, and it is not a little remarkable, that no trace of the assignment among his papers, or proof of his claim under it, could be produced, if that was the only foundation of his powers in respect to the estate and interests of Castro and Henriquez.

But independent of all question upon the effect of this evidence, the assignment fails to establish the insolvency of the partners, because the individual property of Henriquez was not included in it.

As the insolvency of one partner, or the insufficiency of their joint means to pay the partnership debts, does not necessarily prove the insolvency of the other partner, it is clear that the assignment made by Castro does not secure an entire preference or priority to the United States. The rights of the creditors of Henriquez, at least, are not displaced by it. (8 Peters' R. 271.) This is independent of the doubt that might be raised as to the sufficiency of Castro's assignment of even partnership effects, to supply proof of the insolvency of the firm. (4 Wash. C. R. 235.)

The court further observed, that as it appeared from the answer and proofs, the attachment sued out of the state court was carried no further than the arrest of partnership property, and was discontinued within a few days without the appointment of trustees, or any order of assignment. This initiatory arrest of property, and holding it in custody of the law to abide the decision of the proper forum, whether it shall pass to assignees, is not the proof of insol-

vency contemplated by the act of congress. For although it is declared that cases of insolvency mentioned therein, shall be deemed to extend to cases in which the estate and effects of an absconding, concealed, or absent debtor shall have been attached by process of law, (act March 2, 1799, sec. 65,) yet manifestly the term *attached* must be understood as having relation to the ultimate disposition of the property, and not its simple seizure; because that is often divested immediately for the want of due grounds for the procedure; but more especially, because the priority of the United States arises and is enforced, not that the property of their debtor has been taken from his possession, but for the reason that it is invested in some other party (assignee or executor) who has power to distribute and dispose of it. (12 Peters' R. 136, 137. 1 Peters' R. 386.)

The sheriff becomes no such party by serving a process of attachment. He could not be made amenable to the United States, either by means of his possession of the property, or because he had surrendered it to the owner, or transferred it to the assignees.

When the property is placed, by means of the attachment, in a situation to be distributed, the priority of the United States comes into existence, and then only, for the act renders the assignee paying any debt previous to those due to the United States answerable in his own person and estate for such debts, (sec. 65,) and this liability necessarily imports that the party charged with it, had full dominion over the estate and effects of the insolvent, because he is regarded as having committed a *devastavit*, or misapplied funds by paying them out in disregard of legal priorities, and not as a debtor to the United States, or subject to their action merely by having the estate in his possession.

The court accordingly ruled, that neither the assignment made by Castro, nor the attachment levied on the property of the firm, proved the insolvency of Castro and Henriquez so as to enable the United States to sustain this action.

It was therefore ordered that the bill be dismissed.

FRAUDULENT ENTRY OF GOODS.

United States Circuit Court.—In Equity—before Judges Thompson and Betts. April term, 1841. The United States vs. Samuel R. Wood and George R. Ives.

On the 23d October, 1839, the United States recovered judgment against the defendant Wood for \$12,469 14. The foundation of the judgment was, that Wood had fraudulently entered goods at the customhouse at this port at prices below their actual cost abroad, and had thus evaded the payment of the duties due on their importation. John Wood, from whom the goods were purchased in England by the defendant, became bankrupt, and his assignees employed the other defendant, Ives, to collect or secure the debt owing by Samuel R. Wood to John Wood, and arising chiefly out of sales of the goods so imported.

On the 30th of May, 1838, Ives obtained of Samuel R. Wood an assignment of a large amount of property to cover that debt.

On the next day Ives executed to S. R. Wood a certificate or stipulation, to the effect that "the following securities are to be applied to the amount due by said S. R. Wood to John Wood in the first place, and to his other creditors and the expenses attending the collection and securing the same, and the balance I agree to reconvey and redeliver to him," and then followed a description of the property and securities assigned.

On the 28th of April, 1840, the United States filed a bill in equity against the defendants upon these facts, and claimed priority of payment out of the property so assigned. The answer denied that the assignment was of the entire estate of Wood, or that it was made because of his insolvency, and averred, that it was a partial assignment intended to secure a specific debt only. By arrangement between the parties, Ives was examined as a witness on the part of the United States, and detailed the circumstances leading to and attending the assignment; but stated that the assignment at the time was not understood to embrace all of Samuel R. Wood's property his household furniture, represented to be worth several thousand dollars, was not included, &c.

The cause was argued for the United States by Mr. Hoffman, Dist. Attorney, and Mr. Butler, and for the defendants by Mr. Foote.

The Court observed, That if the debt due the United States is entitled to the preference secured by the impost act of 1799, sec. 65, to *bonds* given for the payment of duties, yet such priority was conferred only in case of insolvency proved by the assignment of all the debtor's property. The language of the act plainly looks to this condition, and no adjudication of the U. States courts or state courts has given it a greater extent. (3 Cranch, 73. 1 Peters' R. 386. 1 Paige R. 139. 1 Paine, 629.) The United States must establish by clear proofs their right to come in as creditors of the first degree. When the assignment purports to convey *all* the debtor's estate, that may be sufficient evidence *per se*, but this assignment not being of that character, the plaintiff must supply the proof *aliunde*. If the receipt or stipulation of Ives to Wood may import that the whole of Wood's estate was conveyed, still it is susceptible of explanation by parol proof, and the testimony of Ives shows that it was designed as an acknowledgment only of the amount of property transferred, and the conditions upon which it was received. This testimony, corroborative of the answer, is full to the fact that the assignment was of parcels of Wood's estate only, and for the specific object of securing the debt which Ives represented. The United States accordingly lay no foundation for their claim of priority, if such right may be considered to exist even where no bond has been taken or credit given.

But the evidence, as it now stands, exhibits Ives as a general trustee of Wood's creditors for the surplus in his hands. The plaintiff, as such creditor, would be entitled to enforce the trust in this form of action. (4 Wheat. R. 108, and note 118.) The bill can, therefore, be retained for that object, and the suit be prosecuted to the appropriate decree. (Order accordingly.)

TARIFF DUTIES.

Circuit Court of the United States.—April term, 1841.—Before Judge Thompson. *United States vs. Two cases woollens.* Lindsey, claimant.

By the Court:—This was a writ of error to the District Court, upon a judgment acquitting the goods. The information charged the goods with having been invoiced at less than their actual cost at the place of exportation. On the trial, evidence was given of their actual purchase at the invoice price; but this was contested by evidence on the part of the United States. The claimant then showed the current market value at the time and place of exportation. The United States Attorney insisted that if the jury were not satisfied of the actual purchase on the terms set up by the claimant, they should find against the claimant, and could not look at the actual general market value. The judge, however, charged that they might look to the actual market value. And this is the error complained of.

The actual cost was no doubt in issue. There was no question as to the admissibility of evidence of the actual market value. The question was as to the mode in which the jury should consider it; and upon this, the decision of the district judge was correct. The evidence was relevant to the issue: unless the actual seller can always be produced, it may be impossible to give proof of actual cost: it may be impossible to produce the witnesses actually present at the sale. The market price is the surest test of the fairness and honesty of the transaction, and of the question whether the price in the invoice was probably the price really paid. It would be a very harsh rule to lay down, that no other evidence would suffice but that of actual purchase. Judgment affirmed.

MARINE INSURANCE.

Superior Court, (New York,) before the full bench.—May 29, 1841.—*Heath vs. American Insurance Company.*

Chief Justice:—This was an action on a policy dated July, 1837, on the schooner *Milly Francis*, effected in the name of S. Kissam, on behalf of the plaintiff, as trustee. On the 7th July, 1837, Haughton & Booth, of Edenton,

had assigned the vessel to the plaintiff as a trustee for their creditors. The vessel was lost in August of the same year.

The defence was, that there was a prior insurance, and thereby, under the clause as to avoiding the policy in case of prior insurances, the defendants were exonerated from this policy. It appeared that Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, of N. York, the correspondents in business of Haughton & Booth of Edenton, had, on their order, effected a time policy in December, 1836, for a year, on the same vessel, loss payable to the New York house, which was unexpired at the effecting of the policy in suit. The house Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, were creditors to a large amount, accruing in the course of business of Haughton & Booth. The house of Haughton, Boardman, & Noble, assigned their claim on Haughton & Booth to Kelso, for the benefit of their creditors: and Noble, one of the firm, sent the policy of December to Kelso, with other papers. In the assignment by Haughton & Booth to the plaintiff, the vessel was transferred, and the policy held by the New York house was also comprised in the terms of the assignment. The plaintiff fearing that his right to recover out of the policy first made might be contested, wrote to Kissam, who effected the policy, to state the matter to the insurers, and to apprise them that the former policy would not be enforced against them by him or the Edenton house. The defendants after this effected the policy now in suit.

The plaintiff under the circumstances had the right to make this insurance, either independently on his own interest as assignee for the creditors he represented, or as superseding the prior policy. The owners of the vessel had a right to convey that to whom they pleased, and this would defeat the prior policy; for the one claiming a loss under a policy, must show himself owner at the time of loss. How could their agents defeat this right, or the right to make a subsequent insurance on the property transferred? The transfer was made while the vessel was yet in safety; the only right of the New York house was by way of lien on the policy. Before any loss, all claims under the policy were merely inchoate, and the rights of the agents could not prevent the transfer of the vessel. The plaintiff here has certainly an insurable interest, and if either of the policies is to fail, it must be in this case the first policy.

But in another view of the case: Here both the policies were by the same insurance company: the insurers in the second policy had full notice of the first.

It was at all events intended that the second policy should be effective, unless the plaintiff could have the benefit of the first. That is retained and delivered over to a party in adverse interest, although in form assigned to the plaintiff. The plaintiff then clearly had a right to give the notice that he intended to claim under the second policy, and to proceed on it: if he was entitled to the first policy, still this election would protect the defendants, on paying the second. Whether or not the first policy could also be recovered on for the benefit of the New York house, is not a question necessarily involved in this decision. There was certainly an insurable interest in the plaintiff—there was a lien in favor of the New York house on the first policy, which might or might not take effect: in case it did, then the question would present itself, whether, although both policies covered the same vessel for the same voyage, and were founded on the same original ownership, there was not yet distinct and separate derivative interests, each insurable.

It is also a question arising, but not necessary to be here decided, how far this clause as to prior insurances is to apply where both the insurances are in the same office, and the insurers apprized of the whole circumstances.

Judgment for the plaintiffs.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, adapted to North America; with a view to the improvement of country residences; comprising Historical Notices, and general principles of the art—Directions for laying out grounds and arranging plantations—Description and cultivation of hardy trees—Decorative accompaniments to the house and grounds—The formation of pieces of artificial water, flower gardens, &c.—With remarks on Rural Architecture.* Illustrated by Engravings. By A. J. DOWNING. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam.—Boston: C. C. Little & Co. 8vo. pp. 451. 1841.

For some years past a lively interest has been manifested in this country in rural improvements, and the evidences of our growing wealth and prosperity have become apparent by the increased number of cottages and villas in the vicinity of our larger towns, and along the banks or shores of our noble rivers and other waters,—throughout our rich valleys, and wherever nature seems to invite us by her pleasing and varied charms. Yet, in general, a want of professional skill in rural architecture, or landscape gardening, has been equally manifest wherever we turn our eyes; which has either been caused by a deficiency of a proper knowledge of the subject, or from a desire to imitate foreign works, which are not at all adapted to our soil and climate, or our social and political condition.

It is with these views that the author of the present volume has endeavored to supply the desideratum which has been so long needed; and, as far as we are able to judge, he has been successful in his undertaking. It appears to have been his object to trace out such principles, and to suggest such practical methods of embellishing our rural residences, on a scale commensurate to the views and means of our proprietors, as are best adapted to this country and the peculiar wants of its population.

The performance of the work reflects the highest credit on the enterprising and intelligent author, as well as on the skill of those by whom the work was executed.

2.—*A Treatise on the Law of Sales of Personal Property.* By FRANCIS HILLIARD, author of "An Abridgment of the American Law of Real Property." New York: Halstead & Voorhies. 1841. 8vo. pp. 365.

As a sound legal writer, Mr. Hilliard is already well known to his brethren of the American bar, and the work before us cannot fail to add considerably to the reputation he had previously acquired, of being an able and well-read lawyer. The general principles of law, by which sales of personal property are regulated and controlled, our author has systematized and elucidated with much clearness and precision; while the minutest requisites necessary to constitute a legal sale, or which invalidate it, are well explained and clearly illustrated. A treatise of this kind, we are informed, has been long wanted by the legal profession; for although the law relating to sales of real property has been elaborately treated of, and fully considered and laid down by numerous jurists of great ability and vast legal learning, yet the works which have appeared on the law of sales of personal chattels, have been meager and unsatisfactory. The one before us is, we think, of a different character; nor need its usefulness be confined to the lawyer alone. To the merchant it would be almost invaluable; for although we are far from advising him to attempt such an acquisition of the law, as would fit him to understand and pass through its innumerable mazes and complications, yet a knowledge of so much of its principles as would enable him thoroughly to understand his rights, in relation to the sale and transfer of goods—transactions which with him are continually occurring—would enable him to avoid and extricate himself from many of the difficulties and misfortunes into which men engaged in trade so frequently fall.

- 3.—*Life of Petrarch.* By THOMAS CAMPBELL, Esq., author of "The Pleasures of Hope," &c. Complete in one volume; 8vo. pp. 444. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

The author, it appears, in writing the life of this great Italian poet, employed, as a text-book, the celebrated work of the Abbe de Sade, who showed an admirable sagacity in discovering, we may almost say, the chronology of Petrarch's life—his ecclesiastical preferments, his descendants, his relations and friends, his political and literary life. De Sade's work is, in fact, a deep and large reservoir of information respecting the manners and customs of Petrarch's age; and he has given, as it were, a new life to Laura, by bringing forward documents relating to that interesting woman, from the archives of his own family, which he shows to coincide with passages in his writings. Petrarch, as is not generally known beyond his poetry, was a great man. His zeal, his knowledge in recovering the wrecked treasures of the classics, and his Herculean labors in transcribing them, were heroic. He was the first who substituted any thing like an approach to a classical style in Latin, instead of the barbarous jargon which had prevailed throughout Italy for centuries. The fastidious scholars of latter times have condemned his imperfect endeavors at purity; yet it is confessed by competent modern scholars, that passages of pure Latin eloquence are frequent in his writings. Nor was he a mere looker-back upon antiquity: passages might be quoted from his works that show a liberality of spirit far in advance of his age. He derided astrology at a period when skepticism on that subject was deemed as bad as atheism. He studied geography assiduously, and promoted the knowledge of it, as may be seen in the course of his biography.

The volume is beautifully printed and neatly bound.

- 4.—*The French Revolution.* By THOMAS CARLYLE. Second American (from the second London) edition. 3 vols. in 2. New York: William Kerr & Co. 1841.

The style of this book is perfectly monstrous: such a "bituminous alarum-fire," "smoke-atmosphere," "fire-mæhlstrom," "theatrical thunder-barrel" style—to use his own phrases—was never before written. Original as it is, we trust it may find few imitations: it is as painful a study (and you cannot read it at leisure) as to watch the chain-lightning. But we cannot help admiring the profound knowledge and wonderful instinct—the ever-abounding mirthfulness and rich thought—the racy originality and dramatic descriptions characterizing this work, and never surpassed by any writer of history. Carlyle gives us a picture-gallery complete, needing no "illustrations" more than these "word paintings." He brings before the reader the actors themselves; we mingle in the mob at the taking of the Bastille—in the rabble rout journeying to Versailles—in the sanguinary crowd, crying for the head of that weak and ill-fated king. The tale seems of yesterday; the historian a breathless narrator just escaped from the thickest of the fight, supposing in his hearers a minute familiarity with the principal actors in the fearful tragedy—portraying with but a stroke or two, yet like those famous etchings in the "Song of the Bell," in a way that must be felt, and cannot be forgotten.

- 5.—*A Treatise on the Elements of Algebra.* By the Rev. B. BRIDGE, B. D. F. R. S. Fellow of St. Peter's College, Cambridge; and late Prof. of Math. in the East India College, Herts. 2d American, revised and corrected from the 7th London Edition. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co. 12mo. pp. 224. 1841.

In this work the hitherto abstract and difficult science of Algebra is simplified and illustrated, so as to be attainable by those who have not the aid of a teacher. The author is clear in his explanations, and systematic in his arrangement, and has succeeded in rendering a comparatively abstruse branch of science an agreeable and interesting exercise, both to the pupil and the teacher.

6.—*Collections of the New York Historical Society. Second Series. vol. I.* New York : Printed for the Society. 1841. 8vo. pp. 486.

This volume is principally occupied with the annals of the Dutch colonies, "by whom the arts of civilization were originally planted on the banks of the Hudson." The commonwealth which has sprung up within the limits of their ancient jurisdiction, now embraces within its boundaries nearly one sixth of the whole population of the United States, and rivals in extent and population some of the monarchies of the old world. Beginning with the first glimpses of a discovery of our seacoast, Mr. Folsom, of the publishing committee, has brought together the earliest notices of Hudson's memorable voyage, that disclosed the existence of the noble river that bears the navigator's name. The materials of history here presented, exhibit the primitive settlements on Manhattan Island and near Albany—the gradual spread of population into the interior—the perils and hardships, and the difficulties and embarrassments with which the early colonists had to contend. The labor of preparing the present work devolved entirely upon Mr. Folsom, the librarian, and he has, in our judgment, performed his task in a very satisfactory manner. The labor necessarily bestowed upon a careful revision of the various translations, and in collating them with the original works, cost the compiler more time and attention than will be apparent to the reader. The collections of historical societies have heretofore been printed and done up in a very cheap and slovenly style. We are pleased to note an evident improvement in this particular. The volume before us is, on the whole, a very creditable specimen of the typographic art.

7.—*The Life of Thomas Paine, author of "Common Sense," "Rights of Man," "Age of Reason," &c. &c., with critical and explanatory observations on his writings, and an Appendix containing his letters to Washington, suppressed in his works at present published in this country.* By G. VALE, Editor of the Beacon. New York : published by the author. pp. 221. 1841.

It has been said that a biographer should be a sincere admirer of the man whose character, conduct, and principles he attempts to delineate. As far as this goes to make up the qualifications of Mr. Paine's biographer, there can be no doubt that Mr. Vale was abundantly qualified to do him justice ; for he has lost no opportunity to eulogize his politics, his morals, his religion, and even his gross and abusive attack on Washington. The work is, of course, anti-Christian throughout ; and the author speaks of the followers of the cross as "the pious but duped disciples of Jesus." As a literary production it has an average merit, and will, on the whole, do but little towards rescuing the name of Paine from that infamy to which the almost unanimous judgment of mankind has consigned it. The book is not, however, devoid of interest, and contains a very full and yet condensed account of the narrative of Mr. Paine's life.

8.—*Chronicles of the Pilgrims.* By ALEXANDER YOUNG. Little & Brown. 1841. pp. 500.

Mr. Young has done a great service, and made a contribution of permanent value to our historical literature. He has discovered and sent forth honorably the original narratives of the settlement at Plymouth—its motives, struggles, perils, and triumphs. Governor Bradford's lost history, and portions of other documents thought to have perished a century ago, are now in our hands. We have to-day the living witnesses of our forefathers' faith in Providence, invincible resolve, heroic endurance, sublime courage, and apostolic virtue. The first twenty-five years of our history stands before us in the monument erected by their own hands, but now freshened and rescued from supposed ruin and future peril by a true son. We are rejoiced to see how triumphant is their self-vindication—that there is not a word of theirs we could wish unsaid, not an act we could wish forgotten, not a line we could desire blotted out—that theirs is that "memory of the just which is blessed." F. W. H.

9.—*Selections from M. Bouilly's Encouragement for Youth, with an English Translation facing each page. Prepared and designed for learners of the French Language.* By J. A. FRONTIN, A. M., Prof. of the French Language and Literature. New York: J. A. Frontin. 16mo. pp. 140. 1841.

M. Bouilly was the contemporary and friend of the persons described in these sketches, and is universally acknowledged to have portrayed their characters with truth and fidelity. The touching simplicity of the sentiments embodied in this little volume, will convey through an enticing medium a salutary moral influence.

The object of the translator in preparing a work with the French and English in juxtaposition, has been not only to excite in the American youth a taste for literature in general, but also to assist them in acquiring, in the most agreeable manner, a knowledge and perfection of the French language. The work evidently deserves general encouragement, and no doubt will find it.

10.—*Lectures on Spiritual Christianity.* By ISAAC TAYLOR, author of "Natural History of Enthusiasm," &c. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841. 12mo.

This is the last effort of a somewhat original and very liberal thinker of the English Church. It is written more naturally, though less forcibly, than any other of his books. Mr. Taylor in these lectures attempts to define a spiritual Christianity, as to its externals, its peculiar truths, its morals, and its influences; sometimes with great success, but as a whole, much to our disappointment. The moral internal argument for the truth of the New Testament writers, in the first lecture, is excellent. But the lecturer continually halts upon the threshold of a good conclusion, and sometimes indulges the most savage severity to heretics and opponents. We like not his mind—nor his cold, unimaginative mode of thought—nor the tendency of his writings: but there are yet things in them which every scholar ought to study, and every Christian lay to heart.

11. *Tales of the Kings of England; Stories of Camps and Battle-fields, Wars and Victories, from the old historians: with numerous engravings on wood, by Butler.* New York: Wiley and Putnam. 16mo. pp. 234. 1841.

These tales, written for the amusement and instruction of children, are evidently designed to create a relish for the study of history. The dislike, so frequently evinced by the young for this naturally pleasant and profitable branch of literature, may, we think, be attributed to the very general practice of giving them abridgments, mere outlines of history, in which there is nothing to arrest the attention of a child. Young minds require something more amusing, more interesting, than a bare detail of occurrences, or the dates of the years in which kings reigned or died. They want something more strong, and the compiler of this neat little volume has, we think, selected such incidents from the history of England, as are calculated to convey instruction to his young readers, and at the same time afford them as much interest and delight as the fairy stories of their infancy. It is a reprint of an English edition, and Butler's copies of the cuts that "adorn" the book are very good imitations of the English.

12. *Sermons to Children.* By F. W. P. GREENWOOD, D. D., minister of King's Chapel, Boston. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 12mo. pp. 128. 1841.

The well-known intellectual character of the author of these Sermons, is a sufficient voucher for their merit. The points of conduct advocated, are set forth in a familiar and affectionate style, and should be fondly cherished by the large class of children to which they are addressed.

13.—*Early Friendships.* By Mrs. COPLEY. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo. pp. 174. 1841.

This little volume forms another of the admirable series of "Tales for the People and their Children." It will bear a favorable comparison with the excellent narratives of Mary Howitt, which have preceded it in the same series.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE KING OF HANOVER.

The following treaty of commerce and navigation, between the United States of America and his majesty the King of Hanover, was concluded and signed by their plenipotentiaries at Berlin, on the 20th day of May, 1840; which treaty, being in the English and French language, is as follows:—

The United States of America and his majesty the King of Hanover, equally animated by the desire of extending, as far as possible, the commercial relations between and the exchange of the productions of their respective states, have agreed, with this view, to conclude a treaty of commerce and navigation. .

For this purpose, the President of the United States of America has furnished with full powers, Henry Wheaton, their envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary near his majesty the King of Prussia; and his majesty the King of Hanover has furnished with the like full powers, Le Sieur Auguste de Berger, his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary near his majesty the King of Prussia, lieutenant-general, knight grand-cross of the order of Guelph, the red eagle of Prussia, the order of merit of Oldenburg, &c.; who, after exchanging their said full powers, found in good and due form, have concluded and signed, subject to ratification, the following articles:—

ART. I.—There shall be between the territories of the high contracting parties a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation.

The inhabitants of their respective states shall mutually have liberty to enter, with or without their ships and cargoes, the ports, places, waters, and rivers of the territories of each party, wherever foreign commerce is permitted.

They shall be permitted to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs, and also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses, for the purposes of their commerce; provided they submit to the laws, as well general as special, relative to the right of residing and trading.

While they conform to the laws and regulations in force, they shall be at liberty to manage themselves their own business in all the territories subject to the jurisdiction of each party, in respect to the consignment and sale of their goods, by wholesale or retail, as with respect to the loading, unloading, and sending off their ships, or to employ such agents and brokers as they may deem proper, they being, in all these cases, to be treated as the citizens or subjects of the country in which they reside, it being nevertheless understood that they shall remain subject to the said laws and regulations also in respect to sales by wholesale or retail.

They shall have free access to the tribunals of justice in their litigious affairs, on the same terms which are granted by the law and usage of the country to native citizens or subjects, for which purpose they may employ in defence of their rights such advocates, attorneys, and agents as they may judge proper.

ART. II.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed in any of the ports of the United States on Hanoverian vessels than those payable in the same ports by vessels of the United States; nor in the ports of the kingdom of Hanover on the vessels of the United States than shall be payable in the same ports on Hanoverian vessels.

The privileges secured by the present article to the vessels of the respective high contracting parties shall only extend to such as are built within their respective territories, or lawfully condemned as prize of war, or adjudged to be forfeited for a breach of the municipal laws of either of the parties, and belonging wholly to their citizens or subjects

respectively, and of which the master, officers, and two thirds of the crew shall consist of the citizens or subjects of the country to which the vessel belongs.

The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of the United States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, or of any other country belonging to the Germanic confederation and the kingdom of Prussia, from whatsoever ports of the country the said vessels may depart, whether such importation shall be in vessels of the United States or in Hanoverian vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of the kingdom of Hanover, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, and of every other country of the continent of America and the West India islands, from whatsoever ports of the said countries the vessels may depart, whether such importation shall be in Hanoverian vessels or the vessels of the United States.

The same duties shall be paid and the same bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, or of any other country belonging to the Germanic confederation and the kingdom of Prussia, to the United States, whether such exportation shall be in vessels of the United States, or in Hanoverian vessels, departing from the ports of Hanover, and the same duties shall be paid and the same bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States and of every other country on the continent of America and the West India islands, to the kingdom of Hanover, whether such exportation shall be in Hanoverian vessels or in vessels of the United States, departing from the ports of the United States.

ART. III.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Hanover, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the kingdom of Hanover of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country.

No higher or other duties and charges shall be imposed in the United States on the exportation of any articles to the kingdom of Hanover, or in Hanover on the exportation of any articles to the United States, than such as are or shall be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country.

No prohibition shall be imposed on the exportation or importation of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or the kingdom of Hanover, to or from the ports of said kingdom or of the said United States, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

ART. IV.—The preceding articles are not applicable to the coasting trade and navigation of the high contracting parties, which are respectively reserved by each exclusively to its own citizens or subjects.

ART. V.—No priority or preference shall be given by either of the contracting parties, nor by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on their behalf, or under their authority, in the purchase of any article of commerce lawfully imported on account or in reference to the national character of the vessel, whether it be of the one party or the other, in which such article was imported.

ART. VI.—The contracting parties grant to each other the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice consuls, agents, and commissaries, of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers as those of the most favored nations; but if any of the said consuls shall carry on trade, they shall be subjected to the same laws and usages to which private individuals of their nation are subjected in the same place.

The consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents, shall have the right, as such, to sit

as judges and arbitrators in such differences as may arise between the masters and crews of the vessels belonging to the nation whose interests are committed to their charge, without the interference of the local authorities ; unless the conduct of the crews or of the captain should disturb the order or tranquillity of the country ; or the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, should require their assistance to cause their decisions to be carried into effect or supported.

It is, however, understood that this species of judgment or arbitration shall not deprive the contending parties of the right they have to resort, on their return, to the judicial authority of their own country.

The said consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

For this purpose, they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges and officers, and shall, in writing, demand said deserters, proving by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the muster-rolls of the crews, or by any other official documents, that such individuals formed part of the crews ; and on this claim being thus substantiated, the surrender shall not be refused.

Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons, at the request and cost of those who shall claim them, in order to be sent to the vessels to which they belong, or to others of the same country. But if not sent back within three months of the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause. However, if the deserter shall be found to have committed any crime or offence, his surrender may be delayed until the decision of the tribunal, before which his case shall be pending, shall have been carried into effect.

ART. VII.—The citizens or subjects of each party shall have power to dispose of their personal property within the jurisdiction of the other, by sale, donation, testament, or otherwise.

Their personal representatives, being citizens or subjects of the other contracting party, shall succeed to their said personal property, whether by testament or *ab intestato*.

They may take possession thereof, either by themselves or by others acting for them, at their will, and dispose of the same, paying such duties only as the inhabitants of the country wherein the said personal property is situate, shall be subject to pay in like cases.

In case of the absence of the personal representatives, the same care shall be taken of the property of a native in like case, until the lawful owner may take measures for receiving it.

If any question shall arise among several claimants, to which of them the said property belongs, the same shall be finally decided by the laws and judges of the country wherein it is situate.

Where, on the decease of any person holding real estate within the territories of one party, such real estate as would, by the laws of the land, descend on a citizen or subject of the other, were he not disqualified by alienage, such citizen or subject shall be allowed a reasonable time to sell the same, and to withdraw the proceeds, without molestation, and exempt from all duties of detraction on the part of the government of the respective states.

The capitals and effects which the citizens or subjects of the respective parties, in changing their residence, shall be desirous of removing from the place of their domicile, shall likewise be exempt from all duties of detraction or emigration on the part of the respective governments.

ART. VIII.—The ancient and barbarous right to wrecks of the sea shall be entirely abolished with respect to the property belonging to the citizens or subjects of the contracting parties.

When any vessel, of either party, shall be wrecked, stranded, or otherwise damaged, on the coasts or within the dominions of the other, their respective citizens or subjects shall receive, as well for themselves as for their vessels and effects, the same assistance which would be due to the inhabitants of the country where the accident happens.

They shall be liable to pay the same charges and dues of salvage as the said inhabitants would be liable to pay in a like case.

If the operations of repair shall require that the whole or any part of the cargo be unloaded, they shall pay no duties of custom, charges, or fees, on the part which they shall reload and carry away, except as are payable in like cases by national vessels.

It is nevertheless understood, that if, while the vessel is under repair, the cargo shall be unladen, and kept in a place of deposit destined to receive goods the duties on which have not been paid, the cargo shall be liable to the charges and fees lawfully due to the keepers of such warehouses.

ART. IX.—The present treaty shall be in force for the term of twelve years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of twelve months after the government of the United States on the one part, or that of Hanover on the other, shall have given notice of its intention of terminating the same.

ART. X.—The present treaty shall be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the senate; and by his majesty the King of Hanover; and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at the city of Berlin, within the space of ten months from this date, or sooner, if possible.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the above articles, as well in French as in English, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms, declaring at the same time the signature in the two languages shall not hereafter be cited as a precedent, nor in any manner prejudice the contracting parties.

Done in quadruplicate, at the city of Berlin, on the twentieth day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty, and the sixty-fourth of the independence of the United States of America.

HENRY WHEATON, [L. s.]
AUGUSTUS DE BERGER, [L. s.]

This treaty has been duly ratified, and the respective ratifications of the same were exchanged at the city of Berlin, on the fourteenth of November, 1840, by the ministers plenipotentiary of the two governments; and is made public by the President of the United States, to the end that the same, and every clause and article thereof, may be observed and fulfilled with good faith, by the United States and the citizens thereof.

CHANGE IN THE CURRENCY OF JAMAICA.

The chamber of commerce at Kingston, Jamaica, published on the 1st of January, 1841, under the signature of their president, Hector Mitchell, Esq., the following notice of a change in the currency of that colony:—

“By an act of the legislature of this island, 3d Vic., cap. 39, which has received the royal assent of her majesty in council, and comes into operation this day, the currency of the country has been altered, and henceforth the sterling money of Great Britain will be used; and all accounts, quotations of prices current, &c., will be made in sterling money. All contracts, sales, and other monetary transactions now subsisting, are to be regarded and settled for in the rates of £100 sterling for every £166 13s. 4d. currency. The doubloon is declared a legal tender at £3 4s. sterling; the silver dollar at 4s. 2d.; and the several subdivisions of those coins at the same rate; and the gold and silver coins of Great Britain and Ireland shall be a legal tender to any amount, at the rate they pass current at in Great Britain and Ireland.”

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

PORT REGULATIONS.

RATES OF PILOTAGE FOR THE HARBOR OF BOSTON.

In conformity to law, the following rules and regulations relative to pilotage for the harbor of Boston, approved by the trustees of the Boston Marine Society, are published for the information of the public :—

That the following be the rate of fees of pilotage to be charged on all vessels outward bound :—

<i>From November 1st to May 1st.</i>				<i>From May 1st to November 1st.</i>			
7 feet,	at	90 cents per foot.	7 feet,	at	75 cents per foot.
8 "	90 "	"	8 "	75 "	"
9 "	90 "	"	9 "	75 "	"
10 "	95 "	"	10 "	80 "	"
11 "	\$1 00 "	"	11 "	85 "	"
12 "	1 05 "	"	12 "	90 "	"
13 "	1 10 "	"	13 "	95 "	"
14 "	1 10 "	"	14 "	95 "	"
15 "	1 10 "	"	15 "	95 "	"
16 "	1 10 "	"	16 "	95 "	"
17 "	1 10 "	"	17 "	\$1 00 "	"
18 "	1 20 "	"	18 "	1 00 "	"
19 "	1 30 "	"	19 "	1 25 "	"
20 "	1 50 "	"	20 "	1 50 "	"
21 "	2 20 "	"	21 "	1 75 "	"
22 "	2 50 "	"	22 "	2 00 "	"
23 "	2 75 "	"	23 "	2 25 "	"
24 "	2 75 "	"	24 "	2 25 "	"
25 "	2 75 "	"	25 "	2 25 "	"

And the following be the rates or fees on all vessels inward bound :—

<i>From November 1st to May 1st.</i>				<i>From May 1st to November 1st.</i>			
7 feet,	at	\$1 45 per foot.	7 feet,	at	\$1 10 per foot.
8 "	1 45 "	"	8 "	1 10 "	"
9 "	1 45 "	"	9 "	1 10 "	"
10 "	1 56 "	"	10 "	1 20 "	"
11 "	1 72 "	"	11 "	1 25 "	"
12 "	1 77 "	"	12 "	1 30 "	"
13 "	1 77 "	"	13 "	1 35 "	"
14 "	1 87 "	"	14 "	1 35 "	"
15 "	1 87 "	"	15 "	1 35 "	"
16 "	1 87 "	"	16 "	1 35 "	"
17 "	1 87 "	"	17 "	1 35 "	"
18 "	2 50 "	"	18 "	1 88 "	"
19 "	2 75 "	"	19 "	1 88 "	"
20 "	3 00 "	"	20 "	1 88 "	"
21 "	4 00 "	"	21 "	2 80 "	"
22 "	4 00 "	"	22 "	3 00 "	"
23 "	4 00 "	"	23 "	3 00 "	"
24 "	4 00 "	"	24 "	3 00 "	"
25 "	4 00 "	"	25 "	3 00 "	"

That if any branch pilot of the harbor of Boston offers himself to any vessel liable to take a pilot, outside of a line drawn from Harding's Rocks to the outward Graves, and from thence to Nahant Head, if inward bound ; or any branch pilot who may first offer himself to any vessel outward bound, (the pilot who brought in said vessel, or one belonging to the same boat, in all cases to have the preference,) and the master of the vessel should refuse to take such pilot on board, the master and owners of said vessel, or

either of them, shall incur and be liable to the penalty of the amount of pilotage said vessel would pay, for the benefit of the pilot so offering himself, if he be the complainant.

That if any vessel while under the charge of a branch pilot, or his apprentice, shall be lost or run aground, or sustain any damage, through the negligence or unskilfulness of such branch pilot or his apprentice, such branch pilot shall be liable, not only for himself, but for his apprentice, to pay the owner of such vessel all damages, and also be liable to have his branch or commission taken from him.

That no branch pilot for the harbor of Boston be allowed to make or combine or be in any way interested in the business of pilotage for said harbor, with any other branch pilot, except those who may belong to the same boat with himself, under the forfeiture of his branch.

That it shall be the duty of every pilot, after having brought a vessel into the harbor of Boston, to have such vessel properly moored in the stream, or secured to a wharf, at the option of the master, within twenty-four hours after the arrival of said vessel, if the weather permits, without extra charge. The pilot, if called upon after the expiration of twenty-four hours from her first anchoring, to haul any vessel into the wharf, shall be entitled to receive three dollars for his services; and a pilot shall be entitled to receive the same for taking a vessel from the wharf into the stream, provided said vessel does not proceed to sea within twenty-four hours from the time of her anchoring in the stream.

That if any vessel outward bound, having a pilot on board, should be compelled, either by a head wind or a head tide, to anchor in Nantasket Road, it shall be the duty of the pilot to remain on board said vessel until the next high water, (if requested by the master so to remain,) and if, at the expiration of that time, the master does not see fit to proceed to sea, and wishes the pilot to stay by him longer, the pilot so remaining shall be entitled to receive two dollars per day for each and every day he may be detained on board said vessel, over and above the regular fee for pilotage; but no pilot shall leave a vessel outward bound, proceeding directly to sea, without the permission of the master, until said vessel is to the eastward of George's Island.

That the hull and appurtenances of all vessels piloted into or out of the harbor of Boston, shall, at all times, within sixty days, be liable for the fees of pilotage.

That from and after the first day of May, 1835, each pilot boat in the employ of the branch pilots for the harbor of Boston, may have on board one or more apprentices, to be regularly indented to one or more branch pilots attached to the boat, who shall, after having served not less than two years, and on examination and approval of the trustees of the Boston Marine Society, be authorized to pilot vessels of certain draft of water; and further, that not less than four boats shall be kept in constant employ by branch pilots.

That no apprentice belonging to either of the pilot boats shall take charge of any vessel drawing a larger draft of water than his warrant authorizes; nor shall any other person from either of the pilot boats, (not having a branch,) be put on board of any vessel, unless a branch pilot is not to be obtained. And in event of their taking charge of any vessel, as above, they shall cause the usual signal for a pilot to be kept flying, until within the line drawn from the Harding's Rocks to the Graves and Nahant Head; and shall give the vessel up to any branch pilot, or authorized apprentice, that may apply previous to getting within the said line.

Any apprentice who shall omit to give true information respecting his authority, or refusing to give up a vessel to an authorized pilot when he has charge unlawfully, shall forfeit his warrant.

That a blue and white signal, similar to Parker's Telegraphic, No. 3, be established as a signal for the pilot boats by day, and a bright red light by night, to designate them from other vessels.

The present arrangement is that each pilot boat shall take turns for the outside berth in the bay, and take all vessels (both large and small) that she can board, until all her pilots are out, when she is to be relieved by the boat having the next inside berth, and so to continue in rotation.

In order that the regulations may be carried into full effect, two masters have been appointed to each boat.

PILOTAGE OF THE SCHELDT.

The following information, essential to be known by all mariners, was recently published in the Brussels papers:—

“According to the second section of the fifth article of the provisional regulations for the execution of article nine of the treaty of the 19th of April, 1839, relative to pilotage, merchant ships, with a less draft than fifteen decimetres, are not obliged to take a pilot in the Scheldt. In order to enjoy this advantage, several captains leave Antwerp with little or no ballast, and as they drop down the river, take in the quantity of sand which is wanting. After having thus fraudulently increased their draft of water which would make a pilot necessary, they endeavor to pass Flushing in the night, and thus to evade likewise the payment of the pilotage duty on leaving the river.

“The board of pilotage at Antwerp have received the strictest orders to check this abuse. The delinquents will be prosecuted by virtue of the law of the 26th of March, 1818, which renders them liable to a fine of 10 to 100 florins, and from one to fourteen days' imprisonment; and they will have only to blame themselves for the delay which may arise from the prosecution to which they will expose themselves.”

REGULATIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN SPANISH PORTS.

The following is a copy of a circular received at Lloyd's, from the Spanish consul in England, relative to certain regulations to be observed in all ports in Spain by commanders of vessels and consignees:—

“It having been noticed with regret that the captains of foreign merchant vessels do not observe with due punctuality the established regulations and dispositions on their arrival and clearance in Spanish ports; and it having recently occurred in Cadiz that one of these vessels sailed by stealth, without having cleared at the captainship of the port (*capitania de puerto*), nor received the bill of health, omitting thereby to satisfy the admiralty fees, the provisional regency of the kingdom have resolved, through the financial department, as follows:—

“1. That vessels coming to a certain consignment shall remain under the responsibility of the consignee, who shall be answerable for all infractions of the laws; and

“2. That the consuls, as agents and protectors of the trade of their country, shall guarantee, not as private individuals, but as such consuls, the punctual observance of the laws, and shall further offer the just vindication of their government against those who may infringe them, or who may evade the penalties by taking to flight.

“By order of the regency I inform you of the above, that you may act accordingly, and give it due publicity.

(Signed)

“Madrid, April 12, 1841.

JOAQUIN MARIA DE FERRER.”

HOSPITAL MONEY AT NEW YORK.

Extract from chapter xiv. title iv. of the “Revised Statutes of the State of New York,” entitled “Of the Public Health:”—

Sec. VII.—The health commissioner shall demand, and be entitled to receive, and in case of neglect or refusal to pay, shall sue for and recover, in his name of office, the following sums, from the master of every vessel that shall arrive in the port of New York, namely:—

1. From the master of every vessel from a foreign port, for each cabin passenger, one dollar and fifty cents; for each steerage passenger, one dollar.

2. From the master of each coasting vessel, for each passenger on board, twenty-five cents; but no coasting vessel from the states of New Jersey, Connecticut, and Rhode

Island shall pay for more than one voyage in each month, computing from the first voyage in each year.

Sec. IX.—Each master paying hospital moneys shall be entitled to demand and recover, from each person for whom they shall be paid, the sum paid on his account.

Sec. X.—Every master of a coasting vessel shall pay to the health commissioner, at his office, in the city of New York, within twenty-four hours after the arrival of his vessel in the port, such hospital moneys as shall then be demandable from him, under the provisions of this title; and every master, for each omission of such duty, shall forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars.

LAW IN RELATION TO THE HARBOR OF MOBILE.

In consequence of "divers and grievous complaints" having been made of the captains and masters of vessels coming into the port of Mobile, and throwing stone, gravel, and other ballast from on board their vessels, to the great detriment of said harbor; and as the laws heretofore enacted have been found inefficient to prevent such offences; therefore, the senate and house of representatives of the state of Alabama have passed an act, containing the following provisions, which was approved by the governor, April 28th, 1841.

I. That from and after the passage of this act, if any captain or master of any ship, vessel, or other water craft, which shall hereafter come into the bay or harbor of Mobile, shall throw from on board of such ship, vessel, or other water craft, into the waters of said bay or harbor, any stone, gravel, or other ballast, he shall forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of two thousand dollars, and be imprisoned for a period not exceeding three months nor less than three days, at the discretion of the court wherein such offender shall be sued; one half of said forfeiture to be paid to the first person who shall, on oath, before either of the officers hereinafter named, give information of such offence, and the other half to the harbor master and port wardens of the port of Mobile.

II. That the said forfeiture may be sued for and recovered, by the harbor master and port wardens of the said port of Mobile, in any court having cognizance of the amount sued for, by process of attachment; to be issued in the same manner, and subject to the same rules of construction, provided and established in other cases of attachment; the said attachment to be issued by either of the officers hereinafter named, and to be levied upon the ship, vessel, or other water craft, the captain or master of which shall be the alleged offender; provided, however, that oath be first made by the informer, or other credible person, of the commission of the offence, before some judge or justice of the peace, or clerk of the county or circuit court of the county of Mobile; and provided also, that the said ship, vessel, or other water craft may be replevied on, the captain, master, or consignee thereof giving bond with good and sufficient sureties, to be approved by the officer issuing the attachment, in treble the amount of forfeiture or penalty sued for, conditioned for the forthcoming of the said ship, vessel, or other water craft, to satisfy such judgment as shall be recovered in the suit.

III.—That it shall be the duty of every pilot and deputy pilot of the bay and harbor of Mobile, to inform the harbor master and port wardens of Mobile, of every violation of this act coming to their knowledge, as soon as possible after knowing thereof, and every pilot or deputy pilot knowing such offence to have been committed, and failing to give such information, shall forthwith be deprived of his license, and be forever thereafter disqualified for the office of pilot or deputy pilot of the said port and harbor of Mobile.

IV.—That all laws contravening or impairing the provisions of this act, be and are hereby repealed; provided, however, that all suits commenced, or liabilities heretofore incurred, shall in no manner be affected by this act.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

EAST INDIA MAIL STEAMERS.

The East India Company look to these steamers as the right arm of their strength. They consist of nine vessels, all of which are nearly completed, and are mostly in a good condition. They have an aggregate burden of 15,658 tons, and a gross value of about £500,000. They are employed, with the exception of four of the number, in transporting what is called the "overland mail" from Bombay to Suez. The following is a list of them and their appointments.

NAMES	Tonnage.	Horse Power.	ARMAMENT.		Total officers and men on board.	AVERAGE OF TRIPS TO SUEZ AND BACK—5984 MILES.		
			No. of Guns.	Calibre.		Coals consumed.	Time taken.	Speed.
Victoria,	714	230	3	22 lbs.	88	630	38	9½
Atalanta,	667	210	3	32 lbs.	88	660	42	7½
Hugh Lindsay,	411	180	4	18 lbs.	77	665	45	6
Cleopatra,	700	220	3	32 lbs.	88	8½
Sesostris,	900	220	2	68 lbs.	134	7½
				32 lbs.		
Berenice,	646	230	3	32 lbs.	88	841	40	8½
Zenobia,	670	285		97	850	42
Auckland,	950	220	2	68 lbs.	130
				32 lbs.		
Semiramis,	1000	300	4	32 lbs.	132

The voyage to Suez out and in is 5984 miles, and commonly performed, including all delays, in 38 to 40 days. The stay at Suez is about 100 hours. The coaling alone costs from £2,500 to £3,000 for each voyage up the Red Sea, and the total cost of coal for all the vessels is upwards of £30,000. The number of passengers of all descriptions for two years preceding May, 1840, was—from Suez, 234; for Suez, 255; these include servants and children. The fare of the first class passengers between Suez and Bombay is £80, of which £30 goes to the commander of the vessel for table money, and £50 into the government treasury. The gross receipts for passengers in the period just alluded to was above £30,000, of which about £12,000 went to the commanders, and £18,000 to the treasury.

MASSACHUSETTS RAILROADS.

The following table shows the receipts, expenditures, and dividends of the Massachusetts railroads during the year 1840 :—

COMPANY.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	Dividend. Per cent.
Boston and Worcester Railroad,	\$267,457	\$140,441	6
Boston and Providence Railroad,	202,601	7
Boston and Lowell Railroad,	231,575	91,400	8
Eastern Railroad,	183,297	105,293	5
Western Railroad,	121,347	62,071
Nashua and Lowell Railroad,	82,638	52,532	7½
Boston and Portland Railroad,	93,468	70,022	6½
New Bedford and Taunton Railroad,*	26,437	13,026

* This road has only been in operation since the 4th of July, 1840.

BANK STATISTICS.

CONDITION OF THE STATE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES.

A resolution was adopted by the house of representatives, July 10, 1822, directing the secretary of the treasury to lay before the house of representatives, at each successive session of congress, copies of such statements or returns, showing the capital, circulation, discounts, specie, deposits, and condition of the different state banks and banking companies as may have been communicated to the legislatures, governors, and other officers of the several states within the year and made public ; and where such statements cannot be obtained, such other authentic information as would best supply the deficiency. The states or territories that have not complied with the demand of the secretary of the treasury, or only in part, are Vermont, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New York (free banks,) Delaware, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois, and Iowa. We are indebted to the Hon. Thomas Ewing, the secretary of the treasury, for a copy of the document, which is quite voluminous, occupying nearly fifteen hundred pages. The condensed statements which follow are derived from this document, and are entitled—

- 1. A condensed statement of the condition, at different intervals, of all the banks in the United States.
 - 2. A comparative view of the condition of all the banks in the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 to 1840, inclusive.
 - 3. A general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near to January 1, 1841.
- In a subsequent number of the magazine, we shall endeavor to lay before our readers, the condition of the banks in each state or territory, for several years.

1. A Table, exhibiting a condensed statement of the condition, at different intervals, of all the banks of the United States.

Date	Number of banks from which returns are received.*	Number of banks the affairs of which are estimated.	Total number of banks.*	Loans and discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Capital.
1st Jan.				Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1811	51	38	89	15,400,000	28,100,000	52,601,601
1815	120	88	208	17,000,000	45,500,000	82,259,590
1816	134	112	246	19,000,000	68,000,000	89,822,422
1820	213	95	308	19,820,240	44,863,344	35,950,470	137,110,611
1830	282	48	330	200,451,214	22,114,917	61,323,898	55,559,928	145,192,268
1834	406	100	506	324,119,499	94,839,570	75,666,986	280,005,944
1835	515	43	558	365,163,834	43,937,625	103,692,495	83,081,365	231,250,337
1836	559	8	567	457,506,080	40,019,594	140,301,038	115,104,440	251,875,292
1837	632	2	634	525,115,702	37,915,340	149,185,890	127,397,185	290,772,091
1838	663	663	485,631,687	35,184,112	116,138,910	84,691,184	317,636,778
1839	662	662	492,278,015	45,132,673	135,170,995	90,240,146	327,132,512
1840	661	61	722	462,896,523	33,105,155	106,968,572	75,696,857	358,442,692

* The number of branches is not given in this table, as it was not the practice to enumerate them previous to 1835. For the number in that and each succeeding year, see table 2. The whole number of banks and branches, at the commencement of 1840, is there given as 901.

2. A Table, exhibiting a comparative view of the condition of all the banks of the United States, near the commencement of each year, from 1834 to 1840, inclusive.

According to returns nearest Jan. 1,...	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Banks from which returns have been rec'd.	406	515	559	632	663	682	661
Branches do. do. do. do.	141	146	154	166	178	139
Banks, the affairs of which have been estimated, for want of returns,	100	43	8	2	61
Branches, the affairs of which have been estimated, for want of returns,	5	40
Whole No. banks and branches in operation.	506	704	713	788	829	840	901
Capital paid in,	\$200,005,944	\$231,950,337	\$251,875,292	\$290,772,091	\$317,636,778	\$327,132,512	\$358,442,692
Loans and discounts,	324,119,499	365,163,834	457,506,080	525,115,702	485,631,687	492,278,015	462,896,523
Stocks,	6,113,195	9,210,579	11,709,319	12,407,112	33,908,604	36,128,464	42,411,750
Real estate,	10,850,090	11,140,167	14,194,375	19,064,451	19,075,731	16,607,832	29,181,919
Other investments,	1,723,547	4,642,124	9,975,226	10,423,630	24,194,117	28,352,248	24,592,580
Due from other banks,	27,329,645	40,084,038	51,876,955	59,663,910	58,195,153	62,898,357	41,140,184
Notes of other banks on hand,	22,154,919	21,086,301	32,115,138	36,533,537	24,964,257	27,372,966	20,797,892
Specie funds,	26,641,753	3,061,819	4,800,076	5,366,500	904,006	3,612,567	3,623,874
Specie,	43,937,625	40,019,594	37,915,340	116,138,910	45,132,673	33,105,155
Circulation,	94,839,570	103,692,495	140,301,038	149,185,890	116,138,910	135,170,995	106,968,572
Deposits,	75,666,986	83,081,365	115,104,440	127,397,185	84,691,184	90,240,146	75,696,857
Due other banks,	26,602,293	38,972,578	50,402,369	62,421,118	61,015,692	53,135,508	44,159,615
Other liabilities,	19,320,475	25,999,234	36,560,289	59,995,679	62,946,248	43,275,183
Aggregate of bank accounts,	816,047,441	974,643,887	1,205,879,136	1,372,826,745	1,321,535,910	1,371,008,531	1,286,292,796
Agg. of investm'ts supposed to yield inc'me,	342,806,331	390,156,804	493,385,000	567,010,895	561,760,319	573,366,559	559,082,772
Excess of do. beyond am't of cap. paid in,	142,800,367	158,906,467	241,409,708	276,238,804	243,123,261	246,234,047	200,640,080
Aggregate of deposits and circulation,	170,506,556	186,773,860	255,405,478	276,583,075	200,830,094	225,411,141	182,665,429
Agg. of do., do., and sums due oth. bks.,	197,108,849	225,746,438	305,807,847	339,004,193	261,845,686	278,546,649	226,825,044
Agg. of specie, specie funds, notes of oth. bks., and means,	76,126,317	108,169,783	138,811,763	139,479,277	119,217,428	129,016,563	98,667,105
Excess of imm. l. means,	120,932,532	117,576,655	176,996,084	199,524,916	149,598,258	149,530,086	128,157,929
Total of means of all kinds,	418,932,648	498,326,587	622,196,763	705,490,172	704,358,577	702,383,122	657,749,877
Total of liab., exclu. of those to stockh's,	197,108,849	245,066,913	331,807,061	376,564,482	321,823,305	341,492,897	270,100,227
Total of liab. of the bks. to one another,	76,086,857	100,142,917	134,394,462	158,618,555	144,175,002	133,406,631	106,097,691
Liab. to all, except oth. bks. and stockh's,	121,121,992	144,923,996	281,404,712	313,143,364	260,825,773	288,357,389	270,100,227
Net circulation,	72,694,651	82,606,194	108,185,900	112,652,363	91,174,653	107,798,029	86,170,680

3. A Table, exhibiting a general statement of the condition of so many of the banks as have made returns dated near to Jan. 1, 1841.

STATE OR TERRITORY.	Date.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Capital.	Loans and Discounts.	Stocks.	Real Estate.	Other Investments.	Due by other Banks.
Maine	Jan., 1841	47		\$4,371,500	\$5,820,792		\$322,750		\$500,804
"	June, 1840	27		2,837,508	4,099,612		76,893		337,620
"	Jan., 1841	7		597,810	964,417		14,380		111,691
Massachusetts,	Oct., 1840	115		33,750,000	46,513,685		1,169,803		4,702,491
Rhode Island,	Jan., 1841	62		9,823,558	12,194,485			\$223,397	603,938
Connecticut,									
New York,	Jan., 1841	95		36,401,460	54,691,163	\$4,630,392	3,588,132	861,643	10,061,002
New Jersey,	Jan., 1841	26		3,834,816	5,315,936	40,098	343,696	60,243	1,138,043
Pennsylvania,									
Delaware,	Jan., 1841	3	4	881,648	1,472,464	59,411	66,918		395,082
Maryland,	Jan., 1841	21	2	10,214,908	12,554,889	939,953	504,433	137,311	2,007,906
District of Columbia,	Jan., 1841	6		1,745,155	2,000,505	219,989	186,048	34,536	122,110
Virginia,	Jan., 1841	6	21	10,283,633	15,495,117	1,204,567	798,146	55,341	1,440,684
North Carolina,	Nov., 1840	3	7	3,225,000	4,506,226		95,780	4,076	538,784
South Carolina,	Oct., 1840	12		11,782,358	16,106,806	2,222,293	333,497	107,212	533,869
Georgia,	Oct., 1840	23	16	15,098,694	13,783,221	1,785,304	4,217,493	328,102	1,785,649
Florida,	Jan., 1841	3	4	4,040,775	5,024,877	977,045	115,343	104,169	210,002
Alabama,	Oct., 1840	3	3	14,379,255	24,183,586		599,366	434,904	1,499,693
Louisiana,	Dec., 1840	16	31	41,711,214	48,646,799		13,192,038		1,816,630
Arkansas,	Oct., 1840	2	8	3,532,706	3,838,694	500,000	67,196	403,030	117,310
Mississippi,									
Tennessee,	Jan., 1841	2	14	5,802,447	7,604,332	12,000	431,985		905,123
Kentucky,	Dec., 1840	1	4	2,987,200	3,021,458	1,025,000	92,004	29,850	501,609
Missouri,	Jan., 1841	1	2	1,178,866	1,628,203		80,580	23,808	186,520
Illinois,	Nov., 1840	1	6	4,044,025	3,492,438	2,101,849	471,995	15,990	797,278
Indiana,	Nov., 1840	1	12	2,671,618	3,689,595	294,000	223,629	717,782	305,146
Ohio,	Dec., 1840	26	1	8,103,243	9,878,328			2,688,692	571,333
Michigan,	Jan. 1, 1841	3	1	1,000,000	1,713,769	74,541	75,512	160,172	180,467
Wisconsin,	Sept., 1840	1		100,000	224,365		14,404	60,537	2,571
Iowa,	Sept., 1838	1		100,000	77,941	1,000	4,206	7,221	762
Pennsylvania Bank of U. S.,									
		514	186						

COMMERCIAL TABLES.

STATE STOCK TABLE,

Computed for the Merchants' Magazine, by D. J. Browne, civil engineer.

This table exhibits the comparative value of the various classes of state bonds that have been issued in the United States; assuming the interest to be paid thereon at the end of each year, and afterward improved at 6 per cent compound interest.

Also, the present worth and amount of any bond of \$1000, for 1 year to 30, if improved in the same manner as assumed in the table. For example, an Indiana 5 per cent bond, payable at the end of 19 years, is worth $88\frac{343}{1000}$ per cent, when compared with an Ohio or Illinois 6 per cent bond, at 100 per cent, or *par*, and its present worth is \$888 42, while the Ohio or Illinois 6 is worth \$1000. A New York 5 per cent bond, payable at the end of 9 years, is worth $93\frac{138}{1000}$ per cent, while a bond bearing the same rate of interest, and payable at the end of 19 years, is worth only $88\frac{343}{1000}$ per cent.

Although the interest on state bonds is usually paid semi-annually, it was thought proper to assume it as paid at the end of each year, on the ground that it would have to remain unimproved for a time.

From the "Report of a Late Committee of the British House of Commons, concerning Protective Duties;" which report has been the basis of an article on the subject of import duties, which is already before the reader, in the present number of the Merchants' Magazine.

PRO FORMA TABLE OR TARIFF OF NEW CUSTOMS DUTIES,

UPON A MORE EQUITABLE AND FISCAL BASIS.

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.			Present Rate of Duty.			Revenue for 1839.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale	
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	£	
1. ANIMALS, viz :—									
Asses,.....each	0	10	0	Prohibited.			339	5,000	
Goats,.....	0	2	6	Ditto.					
Horned Cattle,.....	0	10	0	Ditto.					
Horses, Mares, or Geldings,.....	1	0	0	1	0	0			
Mules,.....	0	10	0	0	10	0			
Sheep,.....	0	2	6	Prohibited.					
Swine,.....	0	2	6	Ditto.			36	250	
Ale, Beer, or Mum,.....per barrel	0	10	0	2	13	0			
2. Carriages, all sorts, per £100 value,...	10	0	0	30	0	0	501	1,000	
3. Coffee and Cocoa,.....per pound	0	0	9	0	1	3	794,818	1,000,000	
Produce of and imported from all British possessions, including the states under British protection in the Peninsula,.....	0	0	5	0	0	6			
4. Cotton wool, Sheep's wool, Goat's do., and all other kinds of hair, &c., cwt.	0	2	6	0	2	11			559,645
Produce of and imported from a British possession,.....	0	0	6	0	0	6			
5. Food, viz :—									
Wheat,.....per quarter	0	8	0	Prohibited, except nearly at famine prices.			1,089,775	2,000,000	
Barley,.....	0	4	0					
Rye, Peas, and Beans,.....								
Oats,.....								
Maize or Indian Corn,.....								
Buckwheat, Bear or Bigg,.....								
Flour,.....per 196 lbs.	0	4	0			32,297	£372,103	
Barley and Oatmeal, Indian Corn, Meal, &c.....per 196 lbs.	0	2	0					
Rice, not being rough,.....cwt.	0	8	0	0	15	0			
Rice, rough, or Paddy,.....	0	1	3	0	2	6			
Rice from British possessions, &c., per cwt.....	0	0	6	0	1	0			
Potatoes,.....	0	1	0	0	2	0		
Onions,.....per bushel	0	2	6	0	3	0	1,840		
Maccaroni,.....per lb.	0	0	1	0	0	2	1,792		
Beef and Pork, salted,.....per cwt.	0	8	0	0	12	0	3,823		800,000
Ditto, smoked,.....				1	0	8			
Sausages,.....per lb.	0	0	4					
Bacon and Hams,.....per cwt.	0	12	0	1	8	0	213,077		
Beef, Pork, and all kinds of Butch- er's Meat, fresh,.....cwt.	0	12	0	Prohibited.					
Butter,.....	0	10	0	1	0	0			
Cheese,.....	0	8	0	0	10	6	105,219		
Eggs,.....per 120	0	0	10	0	0	10	12,014		
Fish of all kinds,.....10 per cent ad val.				Chiefly prohibited.			2,040		
Fish, British taking, free,.....	Free					437,046	500,000	
Fruit of all kinds,.....20 per cent ad val.				10 to 200 p. ct.					
Hay,.....per load.....	10	0	0	1	4	0			5
6. Indigo, Cochineal, and Verdigris, per lb.	0	0	4	0	1	6	37,624	30,000	
Indigo, from British possessions,.....	0	0	3	0	0	3			

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.	Present Rate of Duty.	Revenue for 1830.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale
7. Hides and Skins of all kinds, Undressed,.....2½ per ct. ad val.	£ s. d. 10 to 50 per ct.	£ s. d. Var. duties	£ 62,676	£ 50,000
Dressed or Tanned,.....	5 ditto		
8. MANUFACTURES, viz :—				
Of Glass, (exclusive of Excise,).....	Var. duties 20 to 500 per ct.	27,326	500,000
Of Silks, of all kinds,.....	247,362	
Of Paper, (except writing paper,)..	20 per c.	2,681	
Of Leather and Skins, Boots, Shoes, Gloves, &c.....	24,874	
Of Linen and Hemp, (except can- vass,).....	14,182	
Of Cotton, Wool, and Hair,.....	10 pr. ct.	10 to 30 pr. ct.	316,425	300,000
Of Metals, Minerals, Clays and Earths, Stone, Wood, Precious Stones, Feathers, and all other manufactures, not otherwise enu- merated or charged,.....			126,930	
			443,355	
9. Metals and Minerals, and Stones of all kinds—				
Raw or Smelted,.....1 pr. ct. ad v.	Var. duties	33,170	50,000
Forged or Hammered,.....	10 to 30 p. ct.		
10. Oils of all kinds, per £100 value,....	1½ ditto.	{ 10 to 400 per cent.	70,032	100,000
From British possessions, and from West Coast of Africa,.....	2½ ditto.			
11. Seeds and Grains—				
Flax, Hemp, and Rape Seed, quar.	0 1 0	{ Various du- ties, from 5 to 200 per cent.	145,322	150,000
Mustard Seed,.....	1 0 0			
Ditto ground,.....	20 pr. ct.			
Caraway Seed,.....	1 0 0			
All other Seeds and Grains, not otherwise enumerated, per cwt.	0 2 0			
12. Spices of all kinds,.....per lb.	20 p. ct.	{ Various du- ties, 20 to 600 pr. ct.	89,202	100,000
From British possessions,.....	10 ditto.			
13. Spirits—				
Distilled, of all kinds, (except Aqua- fortis and Spirits of Turpentine to be used in manufactures,) per gallon,.....	0 14 0	1 2 6	2,615,442	2,500,000
Produce of, and imported from, a British possession,.....	0 8 0	0 9 0	
Liquors and Spirits, sweetened or prepared, the produce of, and imported from, a British posses- sion,.....	0 10 0	1 0 0	25,258
Aquafortis and Spirits of Turpen- tine,.....per cwt.	0 10 0	82,926	90,000
14. Tallow,.....per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 2	181,999	180,000
Produce of, and imported from, a British possession,.....	0 1 6	0 1 0		
15. Tea,.....per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 1	3,658,800	4,000,000
16. Tobacco,.....	0 2 6	0 3 0	3,495,688	3,500,000
From British possessions,.....	0 1 3	0 2 9		
Manufactured,.....	0 3 0	0 6 0		
17. Sugar, clayed, and in any way re- fined,.....per cwt.	2 10 0	{ 3 3 0		continued—next page
Muscovado, Brown and Yellow,..	1 10 0			

ARTICLES.	Proposed Rate of Duty.			Present Rate of Duty.			Revenue for 1839.	Estimated Revenue on Proposed Scale.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	£		
Produce of, and imported from British possessions—Clayed, White, and in any way refined,.....	1	0	0	1	4	0	4,893,733	7,800,000		
Ditto, ditto, Muscovado,.....	0	15	0							
Refined,	2	10	0							
Molasses,	0	14	0							
Produce of, and imported from British possessions,.....per cwt.	0	6	0	0	9	0				
Syrups and Preserves in Sugar, per lb.	0	0	2	0	0	6				
Succades and Honey,.....	0	0	2	0	0	6				
18. Wine,.....per gall.	0	2	0	0	5	6	1,849,710	2,000,000		
And additional 20 per cent,.....										
Produce of, and imported from British possessions,.....per gall.	0	2	0							
19. Wood—										
Mahogany, Rosewood, and all other Fancy Woods for Furniture, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	1	10	0	5	0	0	1,603,194	2,500,000		
From British possessions,.....	0	7	6	4l. & 1l. 10s.						
Boards and Deals of Mahogany, Rosewood, and all Fancy Woods for Furniture, per load,.....	1	10	0	All former-ly more than 250 per cent.						
And additional 10 per cent,...										
Ditto, from British possessions,.....	0	7	6							
And 5 per cent, ad val.....										
Oak, Teak and Elm, Cedar and Juniper, and Mahogany from Honduras, for ship-building, per load,.....	0	10	0							
Deals and Boards of, per 50 cubic feet,.....	0	10	0							
And 5 per cent additional,.....										
Oak, Teak, Elm, Cedar, Juniper, and Hardwoods, &c. Produce of, and imported from British possessions,	0	5	0							
Pine and Fir Timber, and Spars of all kinds, per load of 50 cubic feet,.....	1	5	0							
Deals, Boards, or Staves of, per load of 50 cubic feet,	1	5	0							
And 10 per cent additional,...										
Pine and Fir Timber, and Spars, Produce of, and imported from, a British possession, per load of 50 cubic feet,	0	7	6							
And 5 per cent additional,...										
Dyewoods, of all kinds,.....5 p. c. ad val.				10 to 200 p. c.			68,997		
20. Raw Materials of all kinds, to be used in Manufactures, in Science, and in the Arts, 2½ per ct. ad valorem,	2½	ditto		Various duties, and free, to 200 per cent.			351,153	393,775		

Export Duties of all kinds to be abolished; with the exception, perhaps, of Coal.

Total Revenue for 1839,.....£22,962,600

Total Estimated Revenue by pro forma Tariff, say.....£23,850,000

IMPORT DUTIES.

REASONS WHICH HAVE INFLUENCED THE AMERICAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AT LIVERPOOL TO ASSIST IN ADVOCATING A REVISION OF THE IMPORT DUTIES.

1. The magnitude of the trade between Liverpool and the United States of America, as compared with that with the British West India possessions, including Demerara and Berbice, in whose favor prohibitory differential duties are sought to be maintained, in illustration of which the following table is annexed :—

INWARDS.	American Tonnage.	British Tonnage.	Total.	Value, at £12 per Ton.
From the United States,.....	397,745	67,823	465,568	£5,576,816
From British West India possessions,.....	43,940	43,940	527,280
OUTWARDS.				
To the United States,.....	414,519	82,335	406,894	5,962,728
To British West India possessions,.....	55,562	55,562	666,744

PRODUCE IMPORTED.

From the United States,.....	£12,422,450
From British West India possessions,.....	1,286,220

2. The United States take from this country, in manufactures, on an average of years, the whole value of the produce imported from thence, as shown by the following table :—

	Value (in dollars) of Imports into Great Britain and Ireland from the United States.	Value (in dollars) of Exports from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States.
1831.....	26,329,352.....	24,539,214
1832.....	30,810,995.....	36,921,265
1833.....	32,363,450.....	37,845,824
1834.....	44,212,097.....	47,242,807
1835.....	52,180,977.....	61,249,527
1836.....	57,875,213.....	78,645,968
1837.....	54,683,797.....	44,886,943
1838.....	52,176,610.....	44,861,973
1839.....	59,896,212.....	65,964,588

3. The approaching termination of the tariff compromise act in the United States, when 20 per cent *ad valorem* will be the highest duty levied upon any article imported into that country ; and, as we impose a duty on tobacco of 600 per cent, on wheat and flour a duty varying from 10 per cent to 75 per cent, and virtually exclude rice (clean,) ashes, timber, and staves, it is naturally to be expected that the states of which those productions are the growth, comparing the moderate maximum duty to which our manufactures are subjected with the burdens we impose on the products of their labor, will unite with a portion of their manufacturers for the purpose of establishing a tariff based on a principle of retaliation.

4. The sliding scale of duty on wheat and flour places countries so distant as the United States on an unequal footing with those less remote ; because, whenever grain is admissible at a low duty, the demand is so rapidly supplied from the continent of Europe. that the duty is generally at a prohibitory rate before supplies from the United States can reach this country ; and, as above shown, that our imports from the United States are paid for by an equal amount of exports of our manufactures, it is reasonable to assume that the whole value of grain and flour received from that country would be paid for in the same medium, and not in gold.

5. That if timber were allowed to be imported from the United States at the same duty as previous to the year 1808, the flourishing trade formerly carried on in that article would be re-established, to the great benefit of both countries, as it is notorious that such is the superior quality of timber the growth of the United States, to that of British Ame-

rica, that vessels built of it are insurable as first class for double the length of time allowed to ships built of the latter.

6. The circumstances of the manufacturing interests have materially changed during the last few years; formerly we consumed the greater portion of our manufactures at home, but now more than two thirds of our cotton fabrics are exported, showing the vital importance of encouraging trade with those countries which, like the United States, are willing to receive to any extent the productions of our industry in exchange for theirs.

NICHOLAS ROSKELL,

Liverpool, May 10, 1841.

President of the American Chamber of Commerce.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH THE UNITED STATES AND FRANCE.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The London Times of April 10, 1841, contains the following valuable information, which shows the importance to that country of the trade of the United States:—

“The interchange of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland with all countries, given in English money, according to a scale of official value settled in the year 1698:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
1835.....	£48,911,542.....	£91,174,455
1836.....	57,230,997.....	97,621,549
1837.....	54,737,301.....	85,781,669
1838.....	61,268,320.....	105,170,549
1839.....	62,001,000.....	110,198,716

“The interchange of France with all countries, given in English money, at the rate of 25f. for each pound sterling, according to a scale of official value settled in the year 1826:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
1835.....	£30,429,067.....	£33,376,888
1836.....	36,223,014.....	38,451,390
1837.....	32,311,718.....	30,323,898
1838.....	37,482,179.....	38,236,305
1839.....	37,878,857.....	40,133,271

“The interchange of the United States of America with all countries, given in English money, at the rate of 50d. for each dollar, according to the actual worth of the merchandise at the time and in the place where landed or shipped, in the year ending as under:—

	<i>Imported.</i>	<i>Exported.</i>
Sept. 30, 1835.....	£31,228,279.....	£25,352,828
“ 1836.....	39,579,173.....	26,804,800
“ 1837.....	29,372,753.....	24,462,370
“ 1838.....	23,641,125.....	22,651,378
“ 1839.....	35,227,527.....	25,214,253

“The interchange of France with Great Britain and her dependencies, by official value, given in English money, at the rate of 25f. for each pound sterling:—

	<i>Imported from.</i>	<i>Exported to.</i>
Great Britain, and possessions in Europe.....	£2,451,531.....	£3,982,833
Mauritius, and British possessions in Africa,	43,452.....	138,296
New South Wales, and the East Indies.....	1,052,802.....	184,191
British possessions in America,	17,506.....	4,750

In the year 1835.....	£3,565,291.....	£4,310,070
“ 1836.....	3,974,438.....	5,037,186
“ 1837.....	4,056,528.....	4,139,382
“ 1838.....	4,545,077.....	6,011,993
“ 1839.....	5,028,585.....	6,952,001

"The interchange of the United States of America with Great Britain and her dependencies, (by declared value,) given in English money, at the rate of 50d. for each dollar :—

.....	Imported from.	Exported to.
Great Britain and Ireland,.....	£12,760,318.....	£10,871,015
British dependencies,.....	979,120.....	1,663,920
<hr/>		
Year ending Sept. 3, 1835.....	£13,739,438.....	£12,534,935
" " 1836.....	17,921,023.....	13,334,906
" " 1837.....	10,881,157.....	12,753,642
" " 1838.....	10,218,995.....	12,434,044
" " 1839.....	15,020,906.....	14,201,892

"Perhaps few of our readers were prepared to see that France, as we are shown by her returns, is already importing from England and her dependencies direct, to an amount exceeding £5,000,000 sterling; and the import or custom of France is larger considerably than here appears, inasmuch as under existing regulations all products not being of European growth or manufacture cannot be received into the French market direct, but are sent from this country to Belgium or Holland, and thence into France. The excess of the French exports to this country and her dependencies, compared with the imports, is in some degree accounted for by this cause.

"In like manner, out of the exports from the United States to this country, a certain portion of the amount (between £100,000 and £200,000) represents not the products of the United States, but goods sent there; as, for example, the gum of Senegal or the annato of Cayenne, which are dependencies of France, in order that they may afterward be imported by British vessels into England.

"The excess in the amount of the general exports over the imports of this country shows, that we are a saving and a lending people; our merchants lend to the merchants of other countries, and individuals of acquired fortune invest a portion of their capitals in foreign stocks, or in the purchase of lands in our colonies.

"In the general interchange of the United States we see a condition of trade, comparing the amount of imports and exports, the opposite of our own. We see that they are a borrowing people, and that the extent of their purchasing our products is measured by the degree of our lending the capital by which they are to be paid for. We say this in no invidious spirit, because we are among those who are of opinion that the bond of any solvent community is as good and convenient a return for our industry as commodities in the ordinary sense; only, we speak of it as a fact, attested by all reasonable observation, and by such returns as are here before us, that when this country is in a spirit to invest in American securities, then it is that America is an unusually active customer for British goods.

"In the general interchange of France, we see a steadily increasing trade; and that a remarkable equality obtains throughout, if the exports be compared with the imports. It may be stated incidentally, with regard to French commerce, that about one third of the amount of imports, and about one fourth of the amount of exports, are transported by land.

"We cannot close this subject without subjoining one more table, for the purpose of exhibiting from our own customhouse returns, the progress of that portion of the exports to France and to the United States, consisting only of British and Irish produce and manufactures, which, by declared value, were as follows, viz :—

	To France.	To the United States.
1835.....	£1,453,636.....	£10,568,455
1836.....	1,591,381.....	12,425,605
1837.....	1,643,204.....	4,695,225
1838.....	2,314,141.....	7,585,760
1839.....	2,298,307.....	8,839,204

"As the exports from Great Britain to the United States extend little or nothing beyond our own produce and manufactures, it is at first sight not easy to reconcile what we return as the amount of our exports to the United States with what the United States government returns as the amount of their exports from this country. Among the causes which seem to explain the excess of the United States return, one is, that the freight of the goods is only earned and added to their value after arrival, and the other, that all the imports into the United States, south of New York, will for the last two or three years have been estimated, we might perhaps add, paid for, in depreciated money. Still, explain it as we will, the irregularity of the United States, as a customer of this country, is remarkable. The trade is large, but occasional disorder is one of the conditions under which we enjoy it.

HOPS, MALT, BREWERS, ETC., OF ENGLAND.

The total number of acres of land in England and Wales, under the cultivation of hops, in the year 1840, amounted to 44,805; the duty on hops of the growth of 1840, amounted altogether to £62,253; the quantity of British hops exported from Great Britain to foreign countries, from the 5th of January, 1840, to the 5th of January, 1841, was 923,881 lbs.; the quantity of foreign hops imported into the United Kingdom, in the year ending January 5, 1841, was 11,966 lbs. It further appears, from the above return, that the total number of quarters of malt made between the 5th of January, 1840, and the 5th of January, 1841, in the United Kingdom, amounted altogether to 5,337,107, out of which 3,564,411 were used by brewers and victuallers, and 420,858 by retail brewers; that the number of persons licensed to sell beer "to be drunk on the premises," in England, between the 5th of January, 1840, and the 5th of January, 1841, amounted to 36,871; and the number licensed to sell beer not to be drunk on the premises, to 5,742. The number of bushels of malt consumed by the former was 2,913,978, and the number consumed by the latter 452,890. The quantity consumed by brewers in the whole of the United Kingdom, during the same period, was 19,866,154 bushels, and the quantity consumed by victuallers 8,649,145 bushels.

QUANTITY OF SOAP MADE IN GREAT BRITAIN, IN 1840.

The total quantity of hard soap made in Great Britain from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was 159,220,068 lbs.; and the total quantity of soft soap made during the same period was 13,535,856. The quantity of hard soap exported from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was 22,004,075 lbs.; and the quantity of soft soap, 7,008 lbs.; the amount of drawback paid thereon being £140,745. The quantity of hard soap exported to Ireland was 9,930,108 lbs., and that of soft soap 187,244 lbs. The total quantity of foreign hard soap imported into Great Britain was 642 cwt., and the amount of duty received thereon £1,279 18s. 8d. The total quantity of foreign soft soap imported was 87 cwt., and the amount of duty received thereon £203 2s. 6d.

EXPORTATION OF COCOA FROM GUAYAQUIL.

The London Journal of Commerce gives the following statement of the quantity of cocoa exported from Guayaquil for the last eight years—that is, from the year 1833 to 1840, showing a total of 80,960,965 lbs., and an increase in 1840 of nearly 8,000,000 lbs. The quantity exported each year is as follows:—1833, 6,605,786; 1834, 10,999,853; 1835, 13,800,851; 1836, 10,918,565; 1837, 8,520,121; 1838, 7,199,057; 1839, 12,159,787; 1840, 14,266,942 lbs. The countries to which the cocoa was exported were Spain, England, France, United States, Mexico, Central America, New Granada, Peru, Chili, Manilla, Hamburg, Genoa, St. Thomas, Rio Janeiro, Rio de la Plata. Of the quantity exported, England receives but a small portion, being no more than 864,177 lbs. Spain takes the greatest proportion, and Mexico follows. The quantity shipped to the former place for the period stated is 37,477,503 lbs., and to the latter 10,865,561 lbs.

PRODUCTION OF COFFEE IN THE WORLD.

The British Almanac states that "according to an approximative estimate prepared by Mr. McQueen, the quantity of coffee produced in the various countries in which it forms a commercial export, is as follows :—

	<i>Pounds.</i>
Brazils,.....	134,000,000
Cuba and Puerto Rico,.....	49,840,000
Java,.....	80,174,460
Hayti,.....	43,007,522
French tropical colonies,.....	14,720,000
Venezuela and Colombia,.....	11,544,024
Surinam,.....	2,400,000
Mocha,.....	5,500,000
Central America,.....	897,540
British West Indies,.....	10,769,655
British India,.....	6,245,028
	<hr/>
	359,398,229

The consumption of coffee in Great Britain, during the year 1838, was 24,920,820 lbs., being more than double the quantity supposed to be produced by the British West Indies.

PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN THE WORLD.

The following approximative estimate of the quantity of sugar produced in different parts of the world, is taken from the British Almanac :—

	<i>cwts.</i>
British sugar colonies,.....	3,571,378
British India,.....	519,126
Danish West Indies,.....	450,000
Dutch ditto	260,060
French sugar colonies,.....	2,160,000
United States,.....	900,000
Brazils, (exact quantity of white not disting'hed)	2,400,000
Spanish West Indies,.....	4,481,340
Java, (without distinction of quality,).....	892,475
For internal consumption, exclusive of China, India, Siam, Java, and United States,.....	2,446,337
	<hr/>
	18,080,658

COMMERCE OF CUBA, IN 1840.

The official statement of the commerce of Cuba, in the year 1840, has been made public. It appears, from this document, that the exports of that most productive spot of earth, amounted, in the year 1840, to almost twenty-six millions of dollars, being four millions and a half more than in 1839. The quantity of sugar exported was six times as large as the quantity of beet sugar grown in France during a similar period. The immense wealth of Cuba, and her great productiveness, in despite of all the embarrassments imposed upon her by Spain, render her an interesting object for the contemplation of political economists. The foreign trade of that island is equal to one fifth of the foreign trade of the whole United States, including cotton, tobacco, breadstuffs, and all the rest. Her internal trade is, however, comparatively small, as there is very little variety in the pursuits of her people, almost all of them being engaged in agriculture, and that confined to two articles, the sugar cane and coffee tree.

The statement exhibits, in detail, the following general results :—

1.—Total Value of Imports,.....	\$24,700,189	} (a)
Total Value of Exports,.....	\$25,941,783	

2.—Number of vessels of various nations which have entered the twelve ports of the island open to foreign commerce :—

Spanish, 958; American, (United States,) 1465(b); British, 355; French, 59; Belgian, 24; Holland, 21; Hamburg, 32; Bremen, 37; Danish, 20; Swedish, 3; Prussian, 2; Russian, 1; Sardinian, 9; Portuguese, 29; Mexican, 4; Oriental Republic, 1; Granada, 3—Total 3023.

3. Imports—(Articles of prime necessity.)

Rice, arrobas of 25½ English,....	675,082	Butter,.....arrobas,.....	12,698
Codfish, do.	434,412	Cheese,.....do.....	28,888
Pork, pickled, bbls.....	3,871	Jerked Beef,.....do.....	1,229,100
Flour, do.....	194,023	Salted Pork,.....do.....	12,931
Hams,.....arrobas,.....	32,426	Sperm candles, lbs.....	209,205
Lard,.....do.....	168,860	Tallow do. arrobas,.....	52,171

4. Exports—(Principal articles.)

Rum, pipes,.....	10,209	Molasses,.....hogsheads,.....	146,464
Sugar,.....arrobas,.....	12,863,856	Tobacco, leaf,...arrobas,.....	169,671
Coffee,..... do.	2,143,573	Do. cigars,...lbs.....	849,824
Beeswax, ... do.	26,131		

5. Duties—Imports,.....	\$5,951,801
“ Exports,.....	1,435,696

\$7,387,497

6. Value of Imports—

From Spain in Spanish vessels, \$5,288,276	From Hanseatic towns, \$391,231
“ do. in foreign do. 6,985	“ Denmark,..... 47,914
“ For. countries in do. do., 6,684,718	“ Turkey,..... 901
“ Spanish America,..... 915,541	“ Italy,..... 20,297
“ The United States,..... 5,654,125	“ Portugal,..... 8,294
“ Great Britain,..... 1,437,199	Value of imports in deposit,.... 3,357,172
“ France,..... 618,461	
“ Belgium,..... 61,761	Grand Total,.....\$24,700,189
“ Holland,..... 207,309	

7. Value of Exports—

To Spain in Spanish vessels, \$3,473,630	To Denmark,..... \$11,686
“ For. countries in do. do. 2,044,441	“ Sweden,..... 56,233
“ Spanish America,..... 37,219	“ Russia,..... 856,479 (e)
“ The United States,..... 5,660,739	“ Italy,..... 108,544
“ Great Britain,..... 6,749,438 (c)	“ Portugal,..... 211,397
“ France,..... 908,605	Val. of exports from deposit, 2,987,745
“ Belgium,..... 239,192	
“ Holland,..... 474,371	Grand Total,.....\$25,941,783
“ The Hanseatic towns,.. 2,122,057 (d)	

(a) Excess of Exports of 1840 over those of 1839,	\$4,459,921
Gold and Silver Coin imported,	1,362,226
“ “ “ exported,.....	1,053,100

Excess of Imports,..... \$309,126

The circulation of the country has increased, in the last eight years, \$6,246,788; of which \$5,366,691 is in gold, the rest in silver.

(b) Of the vessels of the United States, many are of the largest class. Many also, besides the direct voyage in and out, make a coasting voyage in quest of cargo.

(c) Most of the large American ships, carrying sugar to Europe, clear for Great Britain, e. for “Cowes and a market.”

(d) (e) A great part in American ships.

NOTES TO IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

1. This valuation is founded on the customhouse valuations, which being fixed, are, generally speaking, much lower than the selling price, duty off. It makes no account of smuggling, which, inward and outward, is considerable.

2. It shows the commercial movement to have amounted to \$50,641,972; being \$3,844,307 greater than that of the year 1839.

IMPORTATION OF GRAIN AND FLOUR INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

The following is a statement of the total number of quarters of each kind of grain, and cwts. of flour and meal, imported into all the ports of Great Britain, in the year ending the 5th January, 1841, showing the proportion imported and charged with duty in December, 1840, and the quantity remaining in bond on the 5th January, 1841, and also the rates of duty on foreign from the 4th of February, 1841 :—

QUARTERS OF	Rates of Duty.	Total imported from 5th Jan., 1840, to 5th Jan., 1841.	PROPORTION FROM 5TH DEC. TO 5TH JAN.		Remaining in Bond, 5th Jan., 1841.
			Imported.	Charged with duty.	
Wheat,.....	25s. 8d.	1,992,169	38,276	4,991	83,729
Barley,.....	13s. 10d.	629,897	5,868	4,349	9,545
Oats,.....	15s. 3d.	538,286	6,550	291	9,478
Beans,.....	9s. 6d.	127,602	9,792	9,968	763
Peas,.....	11s. 0d.	160,600	40,915	39,920	1,948
Rye, &c.....	19s. 9d.	27,783	1,627	40	4,930
Total quarters,.....		3,476,337	103,023	59,559	109,391
Cwts. of Wheat Flour,.....		1,545,100	152,753	50,579	183,883
Oat, &c., Meal,.....		8,668	2,379	817	1,608

Of the flour imported in December, 1841, 107,279 cwts. were from British possessions and of the quantity remaining on hand 115,402 cwts. are also of British colonial produce. Of the wheat remaining in bond, 2,152 qrs. only are from British possessions.

WINES IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND.

The total quantity of the various sweets, or made wines, imported from Scotland and Ireland into England, from January 5, 1839, to January 5, 1840, was 28,298 gallons; and the total quantity imported from the same countries into England, from January 5, 1840, to January 5, 1841, was altogether 26,771 gallons.

SUGAR IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND.

The quantities of sugar imported into the United Kingdom in the year 1840 were as follow, viz :—British plantation sugar, 2,202,833 cwts.; Mauritius, 545,009 cwts.; East India, 482,836 cwts.; Foreign, 805,167 cwts. Total, 4,035,845 cwts.; and the quantity retained for actual consumption in the United Kingdom in 1840 was 3,594,834 cwts. The nett revenue arising from the duties on sugar in the same year amounted to £4,449,070.

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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

SEPTEMBER, 1841.

J. H. Luman

ART. I.—AGRICULTURAL COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN surveying the vast extent of our national domain, we can hardly fail to be amazed at the amount of its agricultural resources. Stretching through various degrees of latitude, and exhibiting a soil which is warmed by a temperate as well as a tropical climate, it yields nearly all the grains, grasses, and vegetables that are required for the substantial comfort of man, as well as those more luxurious fruits that administer to his tastes and tend to pamper his appetites. Taking the six states of New England, which are limited in their territory, we find that although the soil is of primitive formation, and much broken by hills and ledges of rocks, the common grains, such as rye, corn, buckwheat, potatoes, and most of the garden vegetables, are produced upon its hill-sides and in its valleys to a considerable extent, which may be much increased by improved methods of culture, although a large portion of its surplus population is annually drained off to the more productive lands of the new states of the west. Agriculture, in this portion of our country, is not, however, prosecuted in that scientific and improved form which prevails in England, and by which the crops of that portion of Great Britain are quadrupled. The common and ordinary means which were formerly used for the cultivation of the soil, are now too generally retained; and the necessary consequence is, that the amount of agricultural produce raised is not sufficient for the support of its population. In the state of Massachusetts, however, which has exceeded all other of the New England states in the point to which it has carried the agricultural interest, a better form of husbandry exists. Not only has greater attention been paid to this interest as a science, but the influence of that improvement is experienced in the greater abundance and the superiority of its crops. Passing to the state of New York, we find the advantages furnished by the interest of agriculture most signally displayed. In that wide alluvial soil, stretching away from the banks of the

Hudson to the shores of Lake Erie, the surface of the territory, throughout nearly its entire extent, is checkered with prosperous farms, tilled by an agricultural population which is probably exceeded by that of no other portion of the country in the independence and solid comfort which they enjoy—a condition that is principally derived from the cultivation of the soil. In that condition, indeed, we perceive the benefits which might be diffused throughout the whole country were this species of enterprise more widely extended. The production of wheat alone in this state, yields a vast revenue to its producers; and the flour which is poured out from its mills, and the quantity of beef, pork, and other products of stock-husbandry, as well as grains and vegetables, which fill the channel of the Hudson, supply the wants of the villages upon its banks, and the great metropolis at its mouth. Passing towards the south, we reach the territory of Western Pennsylvania, cultivated with pains-taking thrift by Dutch farmers, a source of no inconsiderable wealth to the state. Arriving in Maryland, we enter upon a soil which, while it produces most of the grasses and grains of the north in as great abundance as even the state of New York, yields also the tobacco; and from that state, through Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, we have a territory which stretches away in plain and valley, inviting the labors of the plough, and giving in return, not only the vegetable products of the north, but also those great staples, rice, tobacco, and cotton.

Nor are the agricultural advantages of this portion of our territory, however great, equal to those furnished by the soil of the west. The valley of the Mississippi, or that domain which extends from the head of Lake Superior to New Orleans, watered by about three thousand miles of that great river, spreads out a more fertile territory, as has been justly remarked by a recent French traveller,* than that of any other portion of the globe. The oak-lands, extending through Michigan to the borders of the lakes, the prairies of Illinois, the deep mould which stretches from the southern borders of the lakes beyond both banks of the Ohio, the forests of Kentucky, and the numerous states organized along the Mississippi, the Illinois, and the Missouri, from the rugged cliffs of Lake Superior to the cotton and sugar plantations of Louisiana and Alabama, develop a field for agriculture which almost bewilders us by its magnitude.

The enterprise of our countrymen, discerning the resources of the soil, has kept pace with their development, by marking out important channels of trade through which the agricultural products of the interior can be most conveniently transported to their respective markets. The long lines of canals and railroads that have been projected and partially carried out, both at the north, the south, and the west, are designed not less to provide the conveniences of personal travel, than to furnish the means of transportation for their agricultural products. Connecting the principal commercial marts of our country, and making up by art what nature has left undone, these improvements, while they accommodate the public in its hours of mere amusement, have a direct tendency to stimulate the labors of agriculture by furnishing to its products convenient and rapid markets, constituting an electric chain through which will vibrate the opinions as well as the trade of the country. Added to this, we are supplied by nature with some of the noblest arteries of internal navigation that are to be

* See *Democracy in America*, by Alexis de Tocqueville.

found in the world, and which furnish the safest means for the transportation of articles of large bulk. The products of New England may be transported from the interior through the artificial public works to which we have alluded, that are designed to run to the navigable waters of the rivers which partially penetrate the interior, or they may be conveyed coastwise from state to state even to the mouth of the Mississippi. In New York we find the Hudson coursing, perhaps, the most densely populated portion of this state from Albany, its largest interior city, to the great metropolis at its mouth; while the agricultural productions of Pennsylvania and Maryland find a ready market at home, and those of the south, which are required to be exported, are provided with an ocean pathway to any port. The navigable advantages of the west are, perhaps, more extraordinary than those that are found in the eastern portion of the country. New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin, have harbors upon the great lakes which are stretched thousands of miles through the forest of our northwestern territory—a territory that is more prolific of agricultural resources than any other portion of our wide-spread empire; and when we consider the advance of population into that territory, and the measure of production which it has already attained, we cannot fail to be convinced that it will soon become, in point of strength and influence, the most important part of our republic. From the shores of Illinois we have also a continuous line of navigation through the states bordering the Mississippi, which annually pour out a vast amount of products to the great commercial mart at its mouth—the city of New Orleans. Such are the agricultural advantages of the country, and such the navigable arteries and public works which furnish channels for the transportation of its productions.

In this country extraordinary motives, certainly, are held out for the exercise of agriculture. Besides the constitution of the country, and the laws of the several states, which guaranty to all its citizens a participation in the national legislation, a further inducement is held out by the low price of lands. In the new states of the west, it is well known that an abundance of the most fertile soil can be procured at the low price of one dollar and twenty-five cents per acre, with the best title; a soil, too, which furnishes in great abundance most of the comforts, and many of the luxuries of life. When to this is added the fact, that by the advance of population, and the necessary growth of the country, this soil, thus purchased at that low rate, will gradually augment in value as the settlement of the surrounding territory is increased, little additional motive could be urged for its cultivation, especially to that body of men who might linger in the large cities of our older states, dependent upon the chance opportunities of labor which might present themselves, and who would be cut off entirely from these opportunities when a sudden mercantile revulsion should, as has frequently occurred, sweep away the great bulk of the business population in one common wreck.

We perceive in the habitudes of agriculture many advantages possessed by no other form of occupation. The cultivation of the soil by its own proprietor, while attended with hardships, is, in a great measure, relieved from those vexatious cares which disturb the population of large cities. In the first place, he is not confined to the counter of a narrow shop, the attendant upon every purchaser who may enter it on business. He is not obliged to spend wearisome days and nights in toiling over a desk, and

has no visions of bankrupt debtors, or protested notes, to disturb his midnight slumbers. Nor has he any uninsured ships upon the ocean, at the mercy of the winds and waves. On each occurring season he sows his fields, with a calm reliance upon the bounty of an all-wise Providence, that in due time sunshine and shower will ripen them to the harvest. He is troubled little with the derangement of the currency, for he knows that should all the banks fail, his own children will not want for bread. He possesses a freehold—a tract of land which, under ordinary circumstances, will yield him the means of subsistence; and, with this conviction, if he sows his crops with labor, he reaps them with joy. He looks out upon his domain, and feels that he has an interest at stake in his country, for his own freehold is a part of its territory. Should the market for his products be contracted, he experiences no alarm, for the profits of his sales would only be required to furnish a few additional articles of taste. He feels, in fact, as a freeman always should feel, the lord of his own domain.

Few more beautiful pictures have been painted for us than those of agricultural and pastoral life, that may be found in the *Eclogues* and the *Georgics* of the ancient poet Virgil. In those parts of his works we have not only the most delightful scenes of such experience, but a treatise, learned for that day, upon the most approved forms of agriculture. And, indeed, how can we fail to believe that such forms of rural taste, such quiet scenes of agricultural simplicity and contentment, could be repeated even in our own continent were men disposed to exercise the means? And these means are obvious. Instead of employing the science of agriculture (we term it a science, because the application of chemistry to the subject has made it one,) as a mode of making money alone, could we not exercise it with greater advantage as a matter of taste as well as of profit? In order to be convinced of the influence that might thus be produced upon the state of agriculture, by blending taste with utility, we require only to visit some of those gardens in the vicinity of some of our larger cities, where taste has been sought as well as utility. Even in these private establishments, laid out, for the most part, to gratify private taste, we perceive in their beautiful decorations—in their grottoes of shells washed by cool waters—in their hermit's cells covered with mouldering moss—in their artificial lakes of silver and golden fish—and in their marble statues, disposed in becoming decency along their shaded walks, as well as in the various species of vegetation that furnish refreshing shades, and the variety of flowers which bloom upon different portions of their areas,—scenes which, if not envied by a Shenstone, might almost vie with his classic and rural retreat.

Independently of those quiet beauties which belong to the more tasteful science of horticulture, how intimately might it be blended with the more substantial labors of agriculture! How easily might flocks of grazing sheep and cattle upon the hill-side overlook the broad wheat or corn field, and the artificial pond,—and the droves of cows, which, refreshed, return to their stall to replenish the dairy, breathe the fragrance of roses from the flower-garden,—and earth thus be made like a second paradise!

That a new era is dawning upon the prospects of agriculture in our own republic, we think there can be but little doubt. The deep interest which the subject has recently excited in various parts of the country, and the motives which almost everywhere exist to extend its operations, point to a marked improvement in this department of labor. Almost every one en-

gaged in the bustling scenes of trade, has pictured to his mind a day when he shall retire from the dusty track of business, and spend his remaining days in a quiet agricultural retreat. Hence it is that most merchants engage, with all the ardor of manhood, in the acquisition of wealth; and after the prime and vigor of youth are spent in such toils, the desire of accumulation increases with the acquisition itself, until, perchance, death finds them, like the dray-horse, dead in the traces. Such, we doubt not, is the history of thousands in our own country, who, in the absence of this ardent thirst for gain, might have enjoyed much happier, purer, and longer lives, had they more early devoted themselves to the invigorating and noble pursuit of agriculture. How few there are who adopt this pursuit as one of taste and inclination! With the example of the father of his country before them—for Washington was but a farmer—they toil on in the marts of trade with untiring assiduity, until a fortune shall have been acquired, which, in most cases, eludes their grasp, without due attention to the cultivation of other qualities which might enable them to enjoy it if acquired; or some commercial explosion wrecks them, stranding them like a shattered hulk upon the shore, blasted in their hopes, and cast down in the depths of poverty and despair!

We have indulged in these few introductory remarks, as naturally growing out of the subject into which we design to enter at some length, namely, the agricultural commerce of the United States. We mean by agricultural commerce, those staples furnished by the cultivation of our soil, that yield a considerable portion of the materials of our foreign and domestic trade.

During the early colonization of the country, it could hardly have been expected that agriculture should have flourished to any great extent. The few settlements that were sprinkled over what was then a mere wilderness, while their population was not so great as to make any considerable inroads into the forest, were obliged to contend with other obstacles connected with the laying of the foundations of new states, in a territory then but little known, and occupied by hostile tribes of savages, as well as by rival civilized powers.

The principal agricultural products indigenous to the country, and which were cultivated by the native Indian tribes, were corn, peas, beans, and tobacco; and when Jacques Cartier penetrated the interior of Canada, as early as 1535, he found fields of the first-named products spread along its shores. Indian corn, it is well known, is one of the original productions of the country; and the maize which was produced upon the prairies and table-lands of the whole territory, were their common articles of food. When, in fact, our country was first colonized by Europeans, the partial cultivation of the soil was found necessary for the support of the inhabitants, and not only were the different species of grains, but agricultural implements also, imported in the first ships that arrived with emigrants from abroad. The magnitude and fertility of the domain furnished ample means and motives for the cultivation of the earth; and we may imagine the colonies of New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and the south, clearing away their small patches of land for husbandry, like the settlers in the remote wilderness of the west at the present time. Upon that broad region which is stretched along the St. Lawrence, the lakes, and the Mississippi, the few feeble French colonies that were scattered through the forest, found it a matter of convenience, while extending their ecclesiasti-

cal influence, and in prosecuting the fur trade upon the waters of the northwest, to practise agricultural enterprise to some extent, for their necessary support ; and Charlevoix, who, as early as 1720, passed through the lakes, in describing the lands bordering the Detroit, remarks : " They are not equally proper for every sort of grain, but most of them are of a wonderful fertility, and I have known some produce good wheat for eighteen years running, without any manure ; and besides, all of them are proper for some particular use." *

The agricultural products of the country, constituting the principal portion of our domestic exports, consist of those which may be considered articles of food and derived from the soil, and the products of animals, whether employed as food or those used for other purposes ; among these may be enumerated, wheat, corn, rye, oats, peas, beans, potatoes, rice, tobacco, beef, pork, tallow, hides, butter, cheese, lard, sugar, cotton, indigo, flaxseed, wax, and other products of minor importance ; most of which articles we propose briefly to consider. The soil and climate of the country are favorable, in greater or less degree, to the production of these articles through its whole extent. The common grains, while they were early cultivated by the colonial emigrants as a means of support, their surplus was usually exported to the West India islands, or to the adjacent markets, where they were exchanged for the sugar and other products that were most required in the colonies.

Wheat appears to have been a staple which early received the attention of the colonists in the northern and middle states, and more recently in the west—although in the states of New England it appears to have greatly declined. Even before the American revolution, and as early as 1770, this grain was exported from the then American colonies to the amount of seven hundred and fifty-one thousand two hundred and forty bushels, and forty-five thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight tons of flour and bread were exported during that year, the whole being valued at \$2,862,190 ; the amount, varying, of course, according to the domestic consumption or foreign demand, has been in the main increasing to the present period—the West Indies, Spain, Portugal, and Great Britain, furnishing its principal markets abroad. The same general markets are furnished to our production of meal and Indian-corn, rye, rye-meal, oats, beans, peas, potatoes, and many other articles of the same kind—the first being used not only for bread, but being distilled in great quantities at home in the manufacture of the various species of ardent spirits. The spirits distilled from the various species of grain, as well as from molasses, were formerly enormous in quantity ; but since the philanthropic exertions of the temperance reformation, it is believed that the amount has been much diminished. Besides the articles which have been mentioned, potatoes and other vegetables, to a large amount, are annually exported abroad, being the surplus of that which is required at home.

Among the products of animals which are yielded to a very large amount in the United States, both at the east and west, we may enumerate the articles of beef, pork, tallow, hams, butter, cheese, lard, live cattle, and horses, which have long been the subjects of export, a vast quantity being required at home by the wants of our growing population.

The four prominent staples of southern product, cotton, tobacco, rice,

* See the Journal of Peter Francis Xavier de Charlevoix, vol. ii. p. 2.

and sugar, it is well known, have been long the subject of exportation, and the fruitful source of revenue to that portion of our country. In a former article we have considered the advance of the cotton production, and, in consequence, it is unnecessary to extend our remarks upon that subject at the present time. We come, therefore, first, to a consideration of the subject of tobacco. This product, common to our southern states, as well as those of the west, is indigenous to the country, and appears to have been in extensive use with the Indians upon its first colonization. The elegant and courtly, but unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh, when he first landed upon the shores of the south, found it growing upon the fields that were cultivated by the Indians; and as early as 1584, he introduced it into England, where it soon attained a pretty extensive use, having been found so valuable that it became the subject of royal proclamation and act of parliament. For the purpose of encouraging its growth in the American colonies, its production in England was prohibited, in order to increase the revenue of the crown—it having become, as early as 1624, a royal monopoly; and the production was soon augmented to so great a degree, that for ten years preceding 1709, the North American colonies annually shipped to the mother country, upon an average, twenty-nine millions of pounds. It appears that before the American revolution, about eighty-five thousand hogsheads, that were valued at about four millions of dollars, were exported, constituting in value nearly one third part of all our colonial exports: but this amount, we learn, has not been swelled since the establishment of the constitution—the average value being, according to a judicious estimate, about six millions of dollars. At the present time it constitutes in value about one ninth of our domestic exports, and derives its principal markets in Great Britain, Holland, the north of Europe, and particularly in France.

Rice, an article which was first produced in the state of South Carolina, and originally the chief staple of its export, as well as the early support of its inhabitants, is cultivated by slaves, to a considerable amount, upon its low grounds, and now forms an important source of revenue to that state. The circumstances of its early introduction into that colony are of some interest, inasmuch as it was a matter of mere accident. In 1693, the then governor of the province, Landgrave Thomas Smith, who had previously resided at Madagascar, observed that this grain grew luxuriantly in the wet and low grounds of that country, and possessing such grounds upon his plantation, he was anxious to try the experiment of its cultivation here. A ship from Madagascar happened, perchance, to put in by stress of weather near Sullivan's Island, and the master, who was an acquaintance of the governor, desired an interview, when his desire to obtain a quantity of rice for the purpose alluded to, was expressed. It fortunately happened that the cook, having been called, informed the parties that he then had on board a small bag of rice suitable for the purpose, which he presented to Mr. Smith, who sowed it in his garden, where it produced a luxuriant crop, which was distributed among his neighbors. It was found to succeed well; and from this accident the cultivation of rice, as the first staple of South Carolina, and the original main support of its colonial population, was successfully established.* So important had this staple become, that an act of parliament, bearing date in the year 1706, was passed, by which

* See Ramsay's History of South Carolina.

it was prohibited from being shipped to any port excepting that of Great Britain ; but in 1730, the act was somewhat relaxed, so that it was allowed, under certain restrictions, to be carried to other ports of Europe. The culture of this staple, indeed, had augmented to so great a degree, that eighteen thousand barrels were exported in the year 1724, and in the year 1761, one hundred thousand barrels were shipped from the single colony of South Carolina. Nine years afterward, namely, in 1770, one hundred and sixty thousand barrels, valued at \$1,530,000, were exported ; the value of the export of this article having reached \$2,774,418 as late as 1833. Besides the quantity that is consumed in the United States, the rice of our own country finds valuable markets at the present time in Russia and Prussia, Sweden and the Swedish West Indies, Denmark and Norway, the Danish West Indies, Holland, the Dutch West Indies, Great Britain, the British West Indies, the British American colonies, Hamburg, Bremen, France, the French West Indies, Spain, the Spanish West Indies, Portugal, Madeira, West Indies generally, and Europe.

The cultivation of sugar, large quantities of which are now made in the Floridas, Georgia, and especially Louisiana—the latter state having produced eighty-seven thousand hogsheads as early as 1828*—has now become of so much importance as to be regarded one of the most valuable staples of the United States, although probably not indigenous to our own country. Father Hennepin, who, in 1680, sailed down the Mississippi, asserts that the banks of that river were full of canes ; but if this were the fact, they had probably been introduced from St. Domingo—the sugar-cane having been carried to that island one hundred and seventy-four years previous. The recent extension of plantations for the cultivation of sugar, along the shores of the Mississippi, has tended to increase its amount, so that a considerable quantity is now furnished to various parts of the country from the single port of New Orleans ; sugar having as early as 1833, been carried from that port to various parts of the country to the amount of twenty-nine thousand three hundred and thirty-eight hogsheads, and also eighteen thousand four hundred and forty-three hogsheads of molasses.† Besides the cultivation of sugar, indigo to a considerable amount was early produced in the states of the south—Georgia and South Carolina yielding much the greater proportion ; but the culture ceased as soon as cotton was introduced, this being much the most profitable product. The seed of flax was also exported in a small quantity, but the amount has been recently much diminished ; a great quantity of flax, however, being manufactured in the country into the various articles which are required for commerce.

Besides these several articles to which we have alluded, the product of agriculture in its more confined sense, we would enter into a very brief view of those articles which may be considered the offspring of stock-husbandry ; among which may be enumerated, beef, pork, tallow, hams, butter, cheese, lard, live cattle, and horses, that have been long the subjects of domestic production and exportation. It requires but a slight effort of the imagination to convince us of the amount of that species of articles that must be produced in the innumerable farms, both at the east and west,

* See a volume entitled, "The Nature and Properties of the Sugar-cane, with Practical Directions for the Improvement of its Culture, and the Manufacture of its Products." By George Richardson Porter.

† See Hall's Statistics of the West.

which lie scattered upon the plains and valleys of our wide-spread country, in order to supply the necessary demand occasioned by the augmenting population of the republic, even were none of these articles exported. But notwithstanding the domestic demand, we find that a considerable amount, which may be considered the surplus, has been exported abroad since the year 1791. During that year, 62,771 barrels of beef were exported, and of pork, 27,781 ; an amount which, in 1833, had advanced to 64,322 barrels of beef, and 105,870 barrels of pork ; and the value of the exports of the produce of animals, such as beef, tallow, hides, and live cattle, butter, cheese, pork, bacon, lard, and live hogs, horses, mules, and sheep, upon an average of years, from 1821 to 1833, was about \$2,500,000—they having been exported to the prominent marts of Europe, and even to Africa, as well as the Spanish, French, and British West India islands.*

Having thus briefly enumerated the several articles which constituted the agricultural staples of our commerce, we propose to enter upon a consideration of the general causes which have borne upon this grand national interest. We have seen that during the early period of our colonization, the agricultural industry of the country was confined to the wants of the few feeble settlers who had planted themselves in the wilderness. Although patches of the coarser grains might have been found flourishing upon the intervals of New England and New York, and scattered rice fields began to wave their golden robes along the marshes upon the coast of South Carolina, and wheat fields dotted the forest at wide intervals from the banks of the St. Lawrence, along the shores of the Mississippi, even to the mouth of that river, this enterprise had arrived to but little vigor ; for the country was a wilderness intersected by bridle-paths, and lay, excepting at a few points, in its original solitude. Since that period, the introduction of cotton into the south, and its gradual extension into the new and fertile lands at the southwest, as well as the increase of the production of tobacco, rice, sugar, and wheat, have all thrown a more cheering aspect upon the agricultural prospects of the country.

Besides, the increase of our population, and the more vigorous prosecution of national enterprise, extending through the whole circle of human labor, has diffused a marked influence upon the agricultural interest. The seventeen millions of our people must now be fed, and while agricultural industry is found, in a great measure, necessary to supply their positive requirements, the largest means and motives are provided for its exercise by the cheapness and fertility of the soil. Moreover, the population, which was principally confined to the principal streams of the Atlantic frontier, that intersected the older states of the east from Maine to Florida, have, since the old northwestern territory came under the jurisdiction of the United States, pressed forward upon the new fields of that exhaustless region from the northern states, as brighter prospects seemed to be opened by the progress of that portion of the country ; and the planters of the south, as their farms became exhausted, have been found willing to remove with their people westward, for the purpose of cultivating the new and more fruitful cotton lands lying along the banks of the Mississippi and its tributaries ; each, however, generally confining itself within their several parallels of latitude. Although the first band of settlers was early planted upon the shores of the Muskingum only fifty years since, we now find that

* Pitkin's Statistics.

state advanced to the first rank in its agricultural production. In the heart of that state, as well as the others which now border the lakes and the Mississippi, extensive tracts have been brought under cultivation, and give ample occupation and support to the millions of our population whose settlements now lie scattered through its forests.

The relative proportion of the agricultural production of the different states, may be clearly ascertained from the census which has been ordered by act of congress to be taken. It would seem, that as a wheat-growing state, Ohio stands first in rank; the amount of that product which it yields being about sixteen millions of bushels. The next in importance is Pennsylvania, the annual product of which is thirteen millions. New York ranks the third, producing eleven millions; and Virginia the fourth, producing ten millions. The state of Tennessee has yielded the largest annual crop of Indian corn; the product of that state being estimated at forty-two millions; Virginia has produced thirty-four millions, Ohio thirty-three, Indiana twenty-eight, Illinois twenty-two, Alabama eighteen, Georgia seventeen, and Missouri fifteen. In the production of potatoes, New York seems to bear the palm, having yielded thirty millions nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand; next comes Maine, with a crop of ten millions; and she is followed by Pennsylvania, with eight millions of bushels. In the production of cotton, Mississippi leads the way with two hundred and eighty-nine millions of pounds; Alabama succeeds with two hundred and forty millions; Georgia follows, with one hundred and forty-eight millions; South Carolina comes afterward, with one hundred and thirty-four millions; Tennessee follows, with one hundred and twenty-eight millions; Louisiana yields eighty-seven millions; Arkansas twenty-three millions; and Virginia ten millions. In the production of sugar, it would also appear, that Louisiana has yielded the largest amount, having produced two hundred and forty-nine millions of pounds; and New York comes next, in the manufacture of that which is derived from the maple, yielding, as we are informed, from her own forests seventy millions of pounds. In the production of swine, Tennessee stands first, having two millions seven hundred and ninety-five thousand; while Ohio has furnished two millions. In the production of wool, also, New York ranks first; and that state is soon followed in successive order by Ohio, Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. In the production of tobacco, the state of Tennessee, also, appears to rank first, yielding the amount of twenty-six millions of pounds; Maryland is next, with eighteen millions; and Virginia, with fourteen millions, follows. In the production of lumber, also, New York has exceeded any other state, producing that article to the amount of \$3,788,000. This state is soon followed by Maine, the alleged valuation of whose lumber is \$1,808,000. So, also, in the products of the orchard the palm is given to New York; the value of this species of product derived from her soil being \$1,732,000. In the products of the dairy, New York is found at the head of the column, producing from this source the value of \$10,000,000; and that state is soon succeeded by Vermont, which derives from the same source the value of \$4,892,000.

We have thus entered into this long estimate, which will be found, probably, in the main accurate, for the purpose of showing, not only the actual, but the relative amount of agricultural product furnished by the different states; and it will be obvious, that the new agricultural states of the west and the southwest are leaving the less fertile, and older

states of the east, far behind in the agricultural enterprise which is now acting upon its soil.

It is indeed extraordinary, when we consider how certainly the application of science to the art of agriculture increases the amount and value of its products, and a proper attention to stock-husbandry improves the breed of cattle, that more attention is not paid to the subject in our own country. We have annual exhibitions of cattle, called fairs, in which, it must be granted, that noble specimens of this species of stock are displayed ; but little has been done compared with what ought to be done, when we reflect upon the magnitude and importance of our agricultural interest. There are many farmers, both at the east and west, who, with a laudable enterprise, have imported numerous valuable specimens of farming stock ; and we know that there are numerous agriculturists in the heart of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio, upon a domain which we of the east are too apt to term a wilderness, who drive from their barn-yards specimens of sheep, horses, and cattle, which would surprise the less ambitious husbandmen of many of our eastern states. But notwithstanding the too great neglect of this branch of our agricultural interest, which we denominate stock-husbandry, our advance in this respect, of late years, has been obvious and marked ; and this improvement is manifest to every one who will compare the quality of our sheep and cattle with those of the same general species which formerly existed in our own country. Liberal and enterprising gentlemen, adopting the pursuit of agriculture from taste and inclination, and disposed to spread widely the benefits of improved husbandry, have imported at their own expense from abroad some of the best species of horses and cattle. As early as 1802, the first importation of merino sheep into this country was made by Colonel Humphreys, of the state of Connecticut, and Chancellor Livingston, of New York. Several companies have been also formed in the states of Ohio and Kentucky, composed of gentlemen of fortune, who have made it an important object to import from Europe the best stock, both of cattle and sheep ; and the farming interest of the country is indebted to Messrs. George and Thomas Searle, of Boston, who, in 1824, imported that beautiful and valuable species of sheep, the Saxony, into the east—it having been introduced into the west seven years previously ;* and to Van Rensselaer and Corning of New York, Powell of Pennsylvania, and Cushing of Massachusetts, for similar services ; the last-named gentleman having not only imported the best stock, but distributed them among the farmers of his vicinity ; deriving, as the sole consideration, the conviction that he had conferred solid advantages upon the agricultural interest of the nation. There are other individuals who have performed similar services. It is by such means, and such means alone, that the country can be advanced to that perfection in agriculture which its resources for the exercise of this branch of enterprise require, and which our own condition, as a great and growing commercial community, demands.

We have said that the condition of the country demands a more direct attention of the public mind to the pursuit of agriculture ; and this fact is manifest, not only from the structure of our government, which makes this pursuit better adapted to the genius of the people than any other, but because the vast tracts of our territory, in their fertility and cheapness, seem to spread out the most ample motives for its exercise. It will scarcely be

* See Hall's *Statistics of the West*, p. 148.

denied that agriculture, which, in the minds of political economists, constitutes but one great branch of human enterprise, is the foundation of all the rest ; for man possesses no earthly treasure-house but that which exists in the wealth of the soil. Agriculture, while it supplies the producer with that which is required for his immediate wants, revolves the wheels of the factory, and provides freights for commerce, granting to every form of human labor both nutriment and strength.

We turn to the consideration of the more important circumstances which have heretofore impeded the prosperity of the agriculture of the United States. Throughout nearly the entire portion of New England, other interests besides the agricultural hold out superior inducements to enterprise. With the open pathway of the fruitful ocean stretched upon its coast, not only are the rewards of commerce, which have already enriched a large portion of the citizens upon the borders, held out before them, but the various forms of the whale, cod, herring, and mackerel fishing, tempt the adventurous navigators of that portion of the territory to venture out upon the watery domain of the sea in quest of the finny tribes with which they abound. Besides, the manufacturing advantages afforded by its numerous rapid streams, seem to hold out much greater inducement for the exercise of manufacturing enterprise than the cultivation of its rocky and hilly territory. It happens, accordingly, that agriculture, throughout this portion of our country, is practised only so far as it is found necessary to supply the immediate population with the ordinary articles of food—the greater portion of this section of our country deriving its wheat and other grains from the surplus that is produced in other states.

Such, however, is not the fact in the middle states. New York, Pennsylvania, and a considerable portion of the adjoining states, comprise a more alluvial soil, that is eminently favorable for the production of the common grasses, grains, and vegetables, and which not only yields a surplus of the agricultural products that are necessary for the support of its population, but produces besides in great abundance the fruits of the orchard, especially the apple and the peach—the last of which product has recently declined in the soil of New England. If we advance further south, especially in the cotton-growing states, we find that the cultivation of that staple, being more profitable in production than any other vegetable product, has, in great measure, swallowed up other species of agricultural enterprise ; the grains and vegetables being produced only in that amount that is required for the subsistence of the planters and their families, and those agents who are employed in the production of this valuable staple.

It follows, as a necessary consequence, that the broad agricultural region to which we have before alluded, comprised in the western states, and extending from the northern boundaries of Iowa and Wisconsin to the Gulf of Mexico, must, from the resources of the soil, and the facilities for cultivation which it accordingly affords, ultimately constitute the great granary of the republic. In the state of Illinois, especially, comprised in great part of prairie, entirely free of undergrowth, and consisting of a deep, damp, vegetable mould, scarcely any means of artificial fertilization are required. The land, if laid open by the plough, and sowed with corn or wheat, which are buried by the next furrow made by that instrument, produces the most abundant harvests. In the state of Michigan, comprised throughout its greater part of what are denominated “oak-openings,” or extensive tracts of undulating land, sparsely wooded with tall forest trees,

which, however, are usually girdled when the ground is fenced, the land requires only to be ploughed in order to the production of abundant crops of corn or wheat. The same mode of culture is also practised in the states of Ohio and Indiana, Kentucky and Tennessee, as well as the remainder of the territory lying further down upon the shores of the Mississippi—yielding an average crop of about sixty bushels of corn to the acre. The prairies, forests, and bottom-lands of that region of the country, yield abundantly the common native grasses, when cultivated; and even in their natural state, produce good pasturage for the horses and cattle which are permitted to roam at large through its forests, and along the meadows and marshes of its inland streams, and lake and river coasts. It may not, perhaps, be generally known that, throughout the greater portion of the west, the tobacco plant thrives luxuriantly—especially along the shores of the lakes—and now forms a prominent staple of Kentucky; and that, besides the large quantities of wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, hemp, flax, turnips, and Irish potatoes, that are produced in this region, the whiskey, pork, lard, bacon, beef, cattle, horses, butter, cheese, and apples, which constitute its prominent staple for export, the farmers of Illinois, Missouri, the southern part of Indiana, and Kentucky, raise their cotton for home consumption; and, like the early settlers of New England and Virginia, produce all they can use, and that many of their families are clad in cotton fabrics which are manufactured at home.*

But few reasons exist in the new states of the west for the exercise of those improved modes of tillage that prevail in the thickly settled lands of England, which, at the present time, exceeds every other nation in the perfection to which it has carried all forms of its husbandry. The regular rotation of crops, the application of animal and vegetable composts to the soil, as well as all the aids granted to vegetation by the recent improvements in agricultural chemistry, are, of course, more requisite in a country like that of England, where the territory is limited, and the density of the population causes the necessity of making large drafts upon its agricultural resources, in order to the support of its population. These circumstances, however, do not exist at the west; for the land produces almost spontaneously, and no artificial means are required for its production. Besides, it is the natural desire of the emigrants who advance into that territory to enclose as large fields as is possible, in order that a wider surface may be laid open to cultivation, rather than to apply new and improved forms of tillage to smaller tracts. It follows, in consequence, that nature is here required to do what, in a more worn and older country, can only be done by laborious art.

In order more fully to understand the importance of the western agricultural production to the general trade and commerce of the country, and its growing consequence, we need only to look abroad upon the extent of the territory and its resources, as well as its existing production. The old northwestern territory, now comprised in the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa—with the exception of that portion of the two latter states which is covered by Indian titles—now contains about 178,616,672 acres of land; the most of it fertile, and capable of producing bountiful harvests of the common grasses and grains. Its population, now probably exceeding three millions, are, in their essential

* See Hall's Statistics of the West.

character, an agricultural people, who have already laid open extensive tracts to the plough, and are daily making further advances into the forest. A considerable portion of the grain produced in that portion of the country is, it is well known, shipped from the several ports of these states and territories, and transported through the lakes in schooners or steamboats to Buffalo, from which point it is carried in boats through the Erie canal to the Hudson, where it is re-shipped in steamboats or vessels and conveyed to New York; with the exception of that portion which is made into flour, either in the states where the grain is produced, or on its passage through western New York, when it is conveyed in that form in barrels through the same channels. For the purpose of showing the amount of this species of agricultural production, we subjoin a table, showing the returns of the grain crop in 1839 in that part of the country, which we have derived from a memorial presented to congress in February, 1841, "praying the adoption of measures to secure an equitable and adequate market for American wheat," which is probably accurate, as it appears to have been compiled with care.

The returns of the grain crop of 1839, showing the whole product of wheat, of Indian corn, and of all other kinds of grain, in the six northwestern states, with the proportion to each inhabitant; with the quantity in the United States, excepting North Carolina and Kentucky.

STATES.	Wheat.	To each inhabitant.	Indian corn.	To each inhabitant.	Other grain.	To each inhabitant.	Total to each inhabitant.
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>
Ohio,.....	16,292,951	10.7	33,954,162	22.4	15,684,492	10.3	43.4
Indiana,.....	4,154,256	6	28,008,051	40.9	6,078,229	8.8	55.7
Illinois,.....	2,740,380	5.6	22,116,627	45.4	4,806,878	9.8	60.8
Michigan,.....	1,899,283	9	2,215,787	10.5
Wisconsin,.....
Iowa,.....	154,737	3.6	1,326,241	30.9	227,118	5.2	39.7
Total,.....	25,241,607	8.6	87,620,868	30.02			
United States,*....	75,995,787	5	301,947,658	20			

With the advance of emigration into the states bordering the great lakes, and the increase of agricultural production, which has been the necessary consequence, has increased the commercial trade upon those inland seas. In order to exhibit the measure of that advance, we append an additional table, showing the increase of the commerce of the northwestern waters for four years, commencing with the year 1836; together with other items connected with its trade, which are of interest to those who are fond of watching the growing resources of our territory. For this table we are also indebted to the same document which we have before mentioned, as well as for that showing the staple articles of the west arriving at Buffalo, and passing eastward by the Erie Canal, for a period of twelve years, extending down to the year 1840.

* Except North Carolina and Kentucky.

Miscellaneous items, illustrating the increase of trade in the northwest, from the year 1836 to 1841.

		1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Lake Erie, steamboats on,	No.	45	50	52	61
" " "	tons	9,017	10,509	17,429	17,324
" sailing vessels,	No.	211	230	234	225	300
" " "	tons	15,030	16,934	16,840	17,799	30,000
" total tonnage,	tons	24,047	27,443	34,277	35,123
Welland Canal—						
Wheat passing on,	bushels	208,242	414,919	864,846
Flour passing on,	barrels	6,869	49,082	66,875
Income,	lbs.	6,461	3,123	5,706	20,341
Erie Canal—						
Wheat and flour forwarded at Buffalo,	tons	24,154	27,206	57,947	60,082	107,557
Wheat and flour arrived at Hudson river,	tons	124,982	116,491	133,080	124,883	218,759
Tolls on wheat and flour,	dollars	301,739	380,161	404,525
Per cent of whole tolls,		27	27
Wheat forwarded at Buffalo,	bushels	450,350	1,467,904
Flour forwarded at Buffalo,	barrels	126,808	647,970
Wheat arrived at Hudson river—	bushels	1,395,195
Flour arrived at Hudson river—	barrels	1,805,135
Michigan—						
Flour shipped from Detroit,	barrels	76,896
Flour shipped from Toledo,	barrels	67,000
Flour shipped from ports on Lake Michigan,	barrels	53,000
Flour on hand for spring shipments—	barrels	200,000

Staple articles arriving at Buffalo, and passing east, by the Erie Canal, in the years named.

Years.	Flour and wheat.	Pork and beef.	Tobacco.	Butter and lard.	Ashes.	Cheese.	Tolls.
	Tons.	Barrels.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	
1829	577	4,754	32	70	1,705
1830	12,384	6,675	62	174	2,713
1831	3,425	5,668	222	205	2,502
1832	5,391	5,159	386	394	2,110
1833	11,926	4,273	532	449	2,118
1834	12,421	14,590	1,009	119	1,655
1835	15,935	8,160	1,765	503	1,694
1836	27,159	7,385	1,877	626	1,752
1837	27,205	24,414	608	550	2,080	39	\$128,581
1838	57,979	16,121	741	2,224	51	202,890
1839	57,766	24,633	538	2,992	93	214,183
1840	90,456	25,462	1,415	2,432	481	321,417

The commerce of the northwest, great in amount as it now is, and rapidly increasing, absorbs comparatively a small portion of the agricultural production of the entire west. The numerous states bordering the Mississippi, and which possess free channels of navigation to that river, pour a great proportion of their products down through this channel to the city of New Orleans, whence they are either shipped to the various por-

tions of the country, or are transported abroad. Ohio, Kentucky, a portion of Illinois, Indiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Missouri, Alabama, and Louisiana, find an outlet for their products elsewhere than through the lakes—the Mississippi river itself furnishing a cheap track of transportation. The cotton of Alabama and Tennessee, Missouri and Illinois, Arkansas, Florida, and Texas, has long found a place of shipment in the port of New Orleans; and the tobacco and sugar of that part of the country uniformly seeks the same port by that channel, in the numerous steamboats and flatboats that are constantly plying upon its waters. But not only do the agricultural products of this part of the west supply the commerce of that river. Large packages of buffalo robes and other peltry, besides furs to a great amount and value, collected by the companies of traders who scour the plains which sweep along the base of the Rocky mountains, and penetrate the deserts bordering the streams which flow into the Pacific, making St. Louis one of the principal points of their deposit, are yearly shipped from this port to New Orleans, where they are either transported to New York or conveyed to foreign ports.

It may be naturally asked, what markets are provided for this enormous amount of agricultural product, and where will be the chances of its sale when, as population advances into the yet uncultivated tracts of this wide region, that amount shall have become quadrupled?—and it must be admitted that the question is not easily answered. Even now, it is well known, that those products have become much diminished in value, in consequence of the quantity already produced; and from this cause, as well as the general derangement of the currency, agricultural productions to the value of millions of dollars are locked up in western granaries, awaiting a more auspicious period for the markets. Owing to restrictions imposed upon these products in certain foreign ports, especially by the corn laws of Great Britain, the producer of wheat is, in great measure, cut off from the ports of the latter country, and doubtless will be in future time, so long as that burdensome system, which now weighs down the real prosperity of that great nation, shall be continued.

In order properly to understand that system, it will be necessary only to glance at its more prominent features. The corn law of Great Britain, as established in 1828 by the act of 9 George IV., is one of those ingenious contrivances by which selfish men strive to fix and perpetuate their own power. Its sole object is to secure for that country the production of grain, by fixing upon its importation from other countries such a duty as in effect to exclude it from her own ports. The necessary consequence of this prohibition is, to keep up the value of the agricultural lands of that empire, which are almost uniformly in the hands of great landed proprietors, and to press down the grain-growing interests of foreign countries, which are thus excluded from her markets; and when, as sometimes happens, a scarcity prevails, the condition of the poorer classes of that country, certainly, is a subject of commiseration. Without entering into a particular examination of the structure of that law, it may be remarked, that while the immense load of the public debt of that country, imposing heavy taxes upon the lands required by its agriculture, causes it to be made a great national object to secure their cultivation by excluding foreign agricultural products, and by thus obtaining a high price to those which are produced in that empire; its influence upon those classes not favored by fortune, when a scanty crop occurs, is injurious in the extreme;

and we rejoice that the policy of those laws is now in a course of investigation by the two powerful parties which divide that country. That their influence is of very great injury to the agricultural producer of our own country, there can be no doubt. Thousands of cargoes of the manufactured products of the British empire are now consumed yearly in our own country: and without the passage of retaliatory and countervailing laws, it would seem to be an act of mere justice that a reciprocal policy should be established between the two nations, by which we may be permitted to exchange for the products of her looms and workshops, a larger portion of our agricultural staples.

There is but little doubt, that, should these laws be amended, the export of wheat to that and the adjacent countries would yield as great a profit to the producer in our new states, as is furnished to the south by the cultivation of cotton. In order to show the value which the export of the former staple, in the form of flour, has reached, notwithstanding all the disadvantages springing from that system, we subjoin a statement of the average amount and value of the wheat and flour that have been exported abroad from this country, from 1800 to 1840, in periods of five years.

Average annual exports of wheat and flour from the United States to foreign countries, in each five years of the present century, with the total in barrels of flour, and the value in dollars.

Years.	Wheat—bushels.	Flour—barrels.	Total, in barrels.	Value.
1800-4	272,100	1,006,721	1,061,171	\$8,205,000
1805-9	272,571	784,032	838,537	6,765,000
1810-14	177,025	1,028,228	1,063,633	10,104,000
1815-19	91,047	995,869	1,014,078	10,193,750
1820-24	15,404	962,903	965,984	5,093,988
1825-29	19,650	846,681	851,610	4,581,882
1830-34	122,354	1,118,000	1,142,471	5,442,118
1835-39	33,950	594,915	601,765	4,586,570
1839	96,325	923,151	942,416	7,079,361
1840	807,743	1,838,538	1,855,086	10,985,644

But even supposing that the system of the corn laws should continue, and our agricultural products are to be henceforward excluded from British markets, our producers of such crops need not despair; for there are resources in the soil which, if they cannot be made to minister at present to a degree of luxury and refinement, by their exchange with other articles from abroad, will always yield to the farmer safe and solid returns. Besides, the capacity of our soil for production has not been fully tested. Ages may be required to show clearly what are the best and most valuable subjects of cultivation, as new markets shall be opened abroad. The rapid augmentation of our population, both from foreign immigration and domestic increase, will hereafter furnish a large and increasing consumption to our vegetable products. Doubtless new subjects of cultivation will be introduced, like that of the beet sugar, which has, it is well known, been recently brought here from France, and that of the silk, which is even now manufactured to a considerable extent in different parts of the country. The annual fluctuations of foreign markets, and the changes which

are constantly going on in the political and physical condition of the states of Europe, will always secure to us ample returns for agricultural labor; and the scanty markets of one year may be more than counterbalanced by the abundant sales of the next. We can all, perhaps, remember the period when, in the interior of the western states, especially those of Ohio and Michigan, the farmers produced a vast amount of surplus, which, cut off from foreign markets, lay heaped up in their granaries, and might have been purchased at a very inconsiderable price. But that state of things did not long exist. As soon as channels for the export of these products, and canals, railroads, and navigation by steam, had furnished cheap avenues for their exportation from the interior to the frontier, and thence through the lakes and waters of the west, or the Mississippi, they soon poured down through these channels, and found productive markets in the eastern states; and now that these markets are annually supplied, it is reasonable to hope that the same fortunate circumstances may happen abroad, which will thus enhance the value of our agricultural products.

In the absence of a market for the grains and other more substantial products of agriculture, the attention of husbandmen might doubtless be directed with advantage to the cultivation of the fruits of the orchard and the garden. There is scarcely a state in the Union in which this species of agriculture might not be introduced with very great advantage; and by due attention to the principles which govern this species of culture, it might be much improved in value and amount. Those who have visited the old French plantations which are scattered along the line of the north-western lakes, cannot fail to have remarked the groves of tall and decayed pear-trees, which form one of the prominent features of those enclosures, and will find that they were planted by the original French settlers, who constituted the earliest emigrants to that portion of the country. The soil of the republic, in its greater portion, is also favorable to the cultivation of the most valuable species of fruits. Extensive orchards of peaches and apples, receiving but little care from their proprietors, it is well known, flourish luxuriantly in the northern and the middle states; and even the orange is produced, and may be increased abundantly, in the territory of Florida. Besides the common garden fruits known at the east, the wild strawberry blushes everywhere among the woodlands and prairies of the west; and the wild raspberry and cherry, the plumb, the crab-apple, the gooseberry and persimmon, and the blackberry, grow spontaneously in that part of our territory. The grape flourishes luxuriantly among its forests, tangling its clustering vines around the branches of the forest trees. Indeed, the culture of the fruit which we last named, has arrived to great perfection throughout its larger portion. In the state of Illinois twenty-seven barrels of wine were made from this fruit by a single individual, from the grapes that were gathered without much difficulty in his single neighborhood; and it has been stated from credible sources,—we believe, indeed, that Dr. Holmes, in his *Annals*, alludes to the fact of its production,—that the original French colonists of that territory made from the native grape a species of wine resembling claret, that was of so good a quality that the merchants of Bordeaux succeeded in procuring an edict to be passed for the purpose of preventing its exportation. Whether, however, this is or is not the fact, it is clearly established that wine not only may be, but has been, made in that quarter to a considerable amount,

and of a superior quality. Let the attention of horticulturists be directed to these facts, and we doubt not that new and valuable improvements may be effected in this department of agricultural enterprise.

We have thus traced rapidly, and we fear imperfectly, the prominent features of the agricultural commerce of the United States; and we may easily perceive the motives that are held out for its vigorous prosecution, by the extent and fertility of our wide-spread country. We need only to look at the actual condition of our carrying-trade to be convinced how great a share is borne by the cultivation of the soil in furnishing freights for the fleets of vessels, both at the east and west, which are continually spreading their sails for the various parts of the earth. Let us look at the proportion which the single staple of the south—that of cotton—bears to the aggregate of the commerce of the country, without considering the tobacco, the sugar, the rice, and the wheat, which themselves constitute no inconsiderable items of our foreign and domestic trade. We may, indeed, form some estimate of its importance when we learn, that on an average of ten years, from 1821 to 1830, the products of agriculture formed three quarters of the total exports of the country. How many mills, and factories, and men, does agriculture keep in motion! What an amount of employment does it furnish to the various forms of labor—the producer, the manufacturer, and the various trades, from the first reaping of the harvest to the last place of sale, the market and the shop! How large a portion of active occupation does it afford to mercantile energy in its various forms, from the transportation from the ship to the storehouse, constantly shifting as its products are from place to place, in order to suit the various phases of mercantile enterprise. It would be safe to allege, that without it that great sea of commerce, which is forever dashing and rolling from shore to shore, according to the various circumstances which change the political or physical condition of men, would forever stagnate.

But in its influence upon larger and more general interests, we think that it should be fostered as a national enterprise. If, as has been remarked by a distinguished statesman, cities are the sores of the political body, where the bad matter of the state is concentrated, what healthful habitudes of mind and body are afforded by agricultural enterprise! The exhilarating atmosphere of a rural life, the invigorating exercise afforded by its various occupations, the pure water, the abundance of the necessities of subsistence, leading to early and virtuous marriages, all point to this pursuit as best adapted to the comfort of the individual man. Its beneficial bearing upon the state is no less obvious. The agriculturist, removed from the pernicious influences that are forever accumulated in large cities, the exciting scenes, which always arise from accumulations of large bodies of men, passes a quiet and undisturbed life, possessing ample means and motives thoroughly to reflect upon his rights and duties, and holding a sufficient stake in the soil to induce him to perform those duties both for himself and his country. It is to the true-hearted and independent yeoman of a nation that we look, in times of national danger, to uphold its institutions, and to protect themselves in preserving the principles of the state. It is to them that we refer for the support of sound legislation, and from their ranks that we derive the best soldiers when the horrors of war overspread a land. While other branches of human enterprise are protected in their due measure, it can scarcely be denied that agricultural

enterprise, the basis of almost every form of human pursuit, should be encouraged as the safeguard of a country, the promoter of its virtue, and the solid foundation of its permanent happiness and most lasting independence.

ART. II.—THE COMMERCE OF BRITISH INDIA,

VIEWED IN ITS PROBABLE INFLUENCE ON THE PRODUCTS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

THE present condition of the commerce of Great Britain with the East India Company's possessions, and its probable influence on the products of our southern states, is a subject at this time of the most serious and interesting character ; and to all who are connected with the great staples of cotton, rice, and sugar, should be one of diligent and careful investigation. It is clear, from the great increase in the amount of East India imports within the last ten years, that they have begun to exercise an important influence on the prices of these articles in the English markets ; and if they continue increasing in the same ratio, in a very few years our commerce with Great Britain must be materially affected. Since the year 1836, (when the duties on East and West India sugar were equalized) the importation of sugar from British India has almost doubled, and it is the same with the articles of coffee and cotton. Rice is also another article of increasing consumption and of improving quality, and in England is now seen for sale in the grocer's window, with that from Carolina—the former at 3*d.*, the latter at 5*d.* a pound. As to tobacco, the present amount of importation from India is small ; arising no doubt from the want of proper management in the preparation for the home market, and skill and knowledge in the cultivators.

The two subjects connected with India, which now engross the attention of the people of Britain, are of a double character and opposite points. India wants from England justice and righteous protection, and a fair acknowledgment of her claims, as an integral part of the British empire. England wants from India raw materials for her manufactories, and the luxuries of coffee, sugar, and tobacco, for her artisans and laborers ; and most of all, she wants an extensive market for her numerous wares and fabrics, which she can produce cheaper than any other country. These two different points of one great national question, have now become the subjects of discussion by the philanthropists on the one side, and the merchants and manufacturers on the other. Both are working for the attainment of their separate objects, at different ends of the same chain. The one will civilize India by justice and religion—the other by unfettered commerce and an improved agriculture. Who would dare say that these are things which the southern people should pass by carelessly and heedlessly, and not prepare to meet the coming change ?

British India comprises a tract of country almost as large as the entire settled parts of the United States, and extensive enough to supply the *whole* of the *present demand* in England, for cotton, rice, sugar, coffee, and tobacco. A glance at the situation of the company's territory, is suf-

ficient to convince any one that these are no vague assertions ; and that causes, many of which have ceased to operate, are the reasons of the small proportion of East Indian articles, which have been able to compete with the same materials from our slave states, in the English market ; and not from the want of a capacity of production in the soil of India, or from the quantity of land, or the price and amount of labor.

Montgomery Martin says, in his history of the British colonies—"The British possessions in India are rich to overflowing with every product of vegetable life, which an all-wise and ever beneficent Providence could bestow, to gratify the sight, and contribute to the happiness of his creatures." Professor Royle, of King's College, says—"In the peninsula of India and in the neighboring island of Ceylon we have a climate capable of producing cinnamon, cassia, pepper, &c. The coffee grown on the Malabar coast is of so superior a quality, as to be taken to Arabia and re-exported as Mocha coffee. The Tinnevelly senna brings the highest price in the London market. The common potato has been introduced into almost every part of India with great success, and benefit to the people. The continent everywhere produces indigo, cotton, tobacco, sugar, and opium. The first, hardly of any note as an Indian product thirty years ago, is now imported in the largest quantities into England ; the *cotton* is *indigenous* to India ; many provinces seem peculiarly adapted for its culture, particularly Malwa, and those to the northwest. The tobacco brought home by Dr. Wallach was pronounced by competent judges to be equal to the best from America. The quantity grown in India is enormous ; every class, high and low use it, and if the duty on it were reduced in England, the different soils of India would afford an infinite variety of that fascinating weed for the British market. Very rich lands produce about 160 lbs. per acre of green leaf ; excellent Havana tobacco is grown in Guzerat, Boglepore, Bundelcund, &c.; and some from the Irawaddy territories has been reported by the brokers in London, as equal to the best American. The want of proper skill in the preparation has been a great obstacle to its arriving in a marketable state in England, after a long East India voyage ; but experiments are now making in Bombay in the improvement of the curing process.

The London Journal of Commerce of January 30th, 1841, says, in speaking of this article,—“There is now a difference of 3*d.* per lb. ; the duty on the American being 3*s.*, and on the Indian 2*s.* 9*d.* The quantity of tobacco imported from India is now small ; of 22,000,000 lbs. cleared for home consumption, but 45,000 lbs. are from India. In the opinion of parties conversant with the trade, Messrs. Grant and Hodgson of Crutched Friars for instance, the reduction of the additional duty would cause an immediate consumption of East India tobacco. They are of opinion that, if due care were taken, tobacco might be grown in India, of a quality and to an extent that would supersede the Columbian tobacco and second rate Havana, of which sorts the number of pounds cleared per month averages 86,000. Indeed, there is no limit to the extent to which tobacco might be cultivated in India. At present Indian tobacco is not so suitable to European taste as that of Cuba or Manilla, but tobacco has been raised from Maryland and Virginian seed, which was quite as good as the produce of those countries. The inferiority of Indian tobacco is ascribed to the species cultivated, which is grown to suit the native taste. The reduction of the differential duty of 3*d.* per lb., which would be a good profit,

would doubtless lead to a cultivation suited to the home market. At present the duty is, in reality, higher on East India than on Virginian tobacco, for although nominally it is equal in amount, the inferiority of the former to the latter, operates as a protective duty in favor of the American growth."

"The sugar-cane is cultivated in every part of India," continues Royle, "but the quality has hitherto been poor: lately, however, a manufactory has been established in Burdiwan; a new mine opened in the Burdiwan coal formation, and very superior specimens of sugar sent home." "Sugar," Martin states, "may be cultivated in India in sufficient quantities to supply the whole world; its production at present is immense, as it forms an ingredient in almost every article of food or drink used by the Hindoos; and where the manufacture is attended to, the grain is as large and as handsome as that from Demerara.* The soil and climate of the three presidencies are peculiarly suited to the production of this essential nourishment to man. The small quantity of sugar which British India now (1834) sends to England, notwithstanding that in the former country (India) it is exceeded only by *rice* in consumption, is 76,613 cwts. "If," says a writer in the Wexford Independent, "we do thorough justice to India, we could draw from these vast and favored regions, the product of free cultivation—with the blessing and full requital of the Indian laborer—more than *twice* the consumption of *all* the sugar we *import*, and more than all the cotton sent to us from the slave states of North America." "The valley of the Ganges," says Secretary Trevellyan, "is a tract of alluvial country, of extraordinary fertility, about 1000 miles long, and from 150 to 300 miles broad, and is capable of producing sufficient sugar for the consumption of the whole world." This valley is densely populated, "and might be given up entirely to the growth of sugar, indigo, tobacco, cotton, and other valuable productions, getting its grain and provisions from the neighboring provinces." A late number (Nov. 1840) of the Calcutta "Friend of India" states "that the cultivation of sugar has extended amazingly since the duties were equalized in 1836; sugar meets the eye everywhere in Calcutta, and were it not for the scarcity of shipping (which is now employed in transporting soldiers to China) we should be able to send double the quantity sent last year to England." Another paper remarks, "the exports of the year (1840) will probably reach 54,000 tons," and that "the public mind, both native and European, continues to be strongly attracted towards the cultivation and manufacture of sugar." The Gladstones of Liverpool have lately sold their property in Demerara and bought large quantities of land in India for the cultivation of sugar and cotton. "I have no doubt," said Zachary Macauley, "that sugar could be produced in India profitably at a penny a pound." "I have received (the venerable Clarkson remarks) information lately (1841) from India of the *new and extensive* cultivation going on there, of sugar, cotton, &c."

But to come to figures. We learn from the customhouse returns, that in 1831 the exports of sugar from India to England were about 60,000 cwts.; in 1836, 152,163 cwts.; in 1839, 519,126 cwts.; and in 1840,

* The Demerara sugar is of a light brown, silky appearance, and is considered the most saleable article in the English market.

nearly 600,000 cwts.* In the Gazette prices, towards the end of the first quarter of 1841, we find that the increased quantity of Indian sugar in the London market, brought the price down 10s. on the cwt. In the year 1834, the price was 61s. to 66s., and in 1840, 56s. to 87s., some qualities selling as high as the *best* West India. In 1835, there were 35,000 boxes and bags imported into Liverpool, and in 1839, 92,000 of the same packages.

The next and most important article, and one that enters more into competition with our slave-produce than any other, is cotton; and here we come to a question of most serious and grave import. Shall we or shall we not be able to compete with India in the production of this valuable staple, when she receives from England her full measure of justice and good government? That the people of that country are disposed to bestow them upon her is evidenced by the interest taken in the subject, in and out of parliament this year, and even by the members of the government itself.

That we have some real grounds for asserting that India is able to compete with us in the cultivation of cotton, and that of all qualities, the writer of this has endeavored to show by a few substantial facts of recent date. It is time for the planters of the south seriously to set about the investigation of the subject; and to ask themselves, whether slave-labor, at thirty-one cents a day, (three negroes doing the work of one freeman—a well-known fact in slave countries,) with all its concomitant evils and vexations, is equal to free labor in the East Indies at twelve cents a day; a large supply of labor, and any quantity of unoccupied land for the purpose; and with a government and wealthy company ready to second them, having only one great impediment in the way—the greater distance of transportation. The people of the United States are alike interested in this subject, and it should by all be one of common interest.

As to capability of production, Montgomery Martin says, "cotton everywhere abounds, but sufficient care has not been bestowed on the growth, so as to render it, as in America, a triennial instead of an annual; or in the picking and cleaning of it for export. The Decca cotton is unequalled; and the 'sea island cotton,' from Saugur island, near Calcutta, promises to be a valuable article of export." And in another place, he says, "the Indian government have, of late years, made several attempts for the extensive introduction of the cotton plant into Guzerat, near the Persian Gulf, *which seems well adapted for the culture.*" Royle says, "the best of cotton is procured from the coast of Coromandel." "The natural internal navigation," states another writer, in 1839, "is most extensive. There are vast tracts of land so near the Hooghly, Ganges, and other large navigable rivers, that without the delay of making roads, the produce can be brought to Calcutta at the moderate cost of transportation, of from five to ten shillings a ton. The presidencies of Madras and Bombay likewise contain land capable of growing cotton to an *illimitable* extent." "You consume," said Gladstone, in parliament, in 1838, "318 millions of pounds of cotton, which proceed from slave labor, and only 45 millions of pounds which proceed from free labor; and that too, while you have the means in India, *at a very little expense*, of obtaining all you require from free labor." "Under a juster government," says a writer of 1840, "we

* It is said, by late advices, that the export of 1841 will be over 1,800,000 cwts.—82,000 tons.

might make ourselves independent of the great product of the United States; and low as the price of Upland cotton now is, (6*d.*) we might bring it down to 3*d.* a pound." "It is not attempted to be denied," says F. C. Brown, of Tellichery, (E. I.) in 1838, "that the natives of India can produce sugar, cotton, tobacco, and coffee, in the proportion of millions to hundreds. It is admitted that they ask no more *than to be suffered* to produce these commodities; had they been so suffered fifty years ago, it is demonstrably certain, that not a negro slave would now exist, either in the West Indies or America; for he could not be profitable to his master, competing with the Indian laborer at 3*d.* a day." Clarkson says, in a late pamphlet of his, that he has "received information recently from India, that individuals are hiring large tracts of land of the East India Company, principally for the cultivation of cotton. One person has taken 60,000 acres at his own risk, and expects to employ 100,000 people *more* than at present." We are all aware, too, that the East India Company have latterly taken much pains to procure the best seeds from America. "Cotton is as fine in Rajapotanah as anywhere in India," says a late writer (1841;) and again, "another part of the same province (Mewar) produces all kinds of grain, cotton, sugar, &c." Rangoon, at the mouth of the great river Irawaddy, "ships large quantities of raw cotton, of superior quality, to Calcutta, and other places, which is used in the fabrication of the finest muslins." This part of India is very similar in climate and situation to the Delta of our Mississippi; and could supply an immense quantity of cotton of the best quality for the English market. A Bombay newspaper of 1839, remarks: "We have shown, in a former number, that until the year 1830, we derived no agricultural produce *whatever* from the fertile plains of Berar (600 miles from the coast;) and supplied that district with but a single article, salt, which, owing to the almost impracticable state of the roads, was conveyed from this city on the backs of bullocks. In that year, one of the native salt merchants tried the experiment of conveying back to Bombay, upon his returning bullocks, some of the cotton which abounds in that country; the experiment was completely successful, and next year 10,000 loads were received from that one district by the same rude conveyance. In 1836, 90,000 loads were received from the same province; "but," the paper remarks, "the roads were so bad, that it imposes an additional cost of 80 per cent upon its original price. The government, however, have at length taken up the subject, and directed surveys to be made for building the road, to cost £30,000." They have also resolved to make a road from Bombay to Agra, into the very heart of the cotton district. According to the Bombay Times of March 27, 1841, up to the 19th of March, 1840, the total imports amounted to only 69,522 cwt., while to the same date of the present year they amount to 324,679 cwt.; thus exhibiting an increase of 255,157 cwt. This large increase does not appear to be owing to any fortuitous circumstance, but either to the cultivation being greatly extended, or to greater exertions being used to bring forward the new crop. From all accounts, it appears that greater extension is given to the cultivation of cotton in districts which heretofore supplied comparatively insignificant quantities, and greater attention paid to the quality.

The Manchester Chamber of Commerce, in connection with the East India Company, having directed their attention particularly to this staple, expressed their conviction, that large supplies of cotton could be procured

from British India at a moderate cost, if the cultivation and preparation were better attended to. Accordingly, the company sent out an intelligent and capable individual to the United States ; and in the fall of 1840, he returned to England, accompanied by several Americans well acquainted with the cultivation ; and bringing with them several cotton gins, and the best kinds of seeds. The gins were set up in Liverpool, and several parcels of Indian cotton (in the seed) submitted to the working of the new machinery, and declared increased in price, from the operation, one fourth to three eighths of a penny on a pound. The result was, that while the American gins could clean 1400 pounds a day, to the great improvement of the raw material, an Indian machine, (a churka,) with three laborers to work it, could only turn off 40 pounds. Let it be remembered, that with all this extra labor in India, they send cotton to England at the low price of from six to thirteen cents a pound, and after paying the costs of an expensive transportation. By a late Indian mail we learn, that these individuals had arrived, and applied for 1000 acres of land, in the Tinnevelly district, to make a commencement.

But as we came to figures in our sugar statement, we will now give a similar view respecting cotton. Secretary Woodbury says, "that the production of cotton, in India, in 1791, was 150 millions, and in 1834, 185 millions of pounds." India furnishes cotton sufficient for her own consumption, the supply of China, and a large surplus goes to England, we learn from the same report to congress. In 1831, the imports of Indian cotton into England were 75,627 bales ; in 1835, 116,153 bales ; and in 1840, we have 216,784 bales—nearly trebled in nine years. The importation in 1839, was 47,233,959 pounds, and in 1840, 76,703,295 pounds ; an increase without a parallel in the history of this valuable commodity. In the first quarter of 1840, the imports were 28,611 bales ; and in the same term of 1841, we find 35,433 ; an increase of 7,822 bales. I think we have good reason to believe, that the similarity in quality of the Brazilian and East India cottons, has had the effect of manufacturers preferring the latter for rough work, on account of the lower price ; and very much diminishing the demand for the former. We find in "Myers' Liverpool Mercantile Gazette," (excellent authority,) that the imports of Brazilian cotton of all kinds into Great Britain, have been lessening for the last nine years. In 1831, the importation was 174,506 bales ; in 1835, 157,316 ; in 1838, 164,074 ; in 1839, 124,887 ; and in 1840, we find it reduced to 103,414 ; a decrease of 71,094 bales in nine years. This looks very much like the inability of its standing the competition much longer. The Indian article is also able to compete in price with many qualities of American cotton.

The next article in which we are immediately concerned, is rice ; and here we shall find that the East Indies allow South Carolina no monopoly ; and notwithstanding that we excel them in quality in the European market, they are undermining us in price, and also improving its character by machinery and better cultivation. Were it not for the immense consumption of this grain in the east, ours could not exist a single year in the European markets ; and did they not use their best rice there, which is fully equal to the Carolina, (says Royle and other writers,) we should stand but a poor chance now.

The valleys of the Ganges, Irawaddy, and other large rivers of India, have been, from time immemorial, the great rice fields of the central parts

of Asia. The rice, so extensively cultivated in India, depends upon rain, or irrigation *from tanks* or rivers. These Captain Hall describes, near Nundydroog, as "spread over a valley which is from six to eight miles across; and that they were used for irrigating *myriads* of rice fields. The embankments are sometimes miles in length. One valley was pointed out to him, about a mile broad and forty miles in length, which included between thirty and forty tanks; every intermediate square yard of the intermediate spaces being richly cultivated." Dr. Roxburgh states, "that he never saw or heard of an Indian farmer manuring, in the smallest degree, a rice field; yet *these fields* have probably, for thousands of years, continued to yield annually a large crop of rice, on an average of thirty to sixty fold; even eighty or a hundred has been known." From these short notices, which could be multiplied were it necessary from many authors, we learn that India is as capable of competing with us in the cultivation of rice, as she is with that of cotton. Very lately the improved rice machines of Ewbank and Lucas, and Shiel, have come into use in the east.

The countries which compete with us in the European markets, are Bengal and Java. In the British West Indies, where it is getting to be of great consumption, the rice from Venezuela and New Granada, with that from the East Indies, is gradually supplanting ours. It is a common thing to see, in the Jamaica papers, advertisements of "bags of Calcutta and Santa Martha rice;" and in the summer of 1840, an enterprising mercantile firm of Kingston in that island, imported a *ship's cargo* of rice from the East Indies—a distance of nearly 10,000 miles! In 1838, Calcutta alone exported to Mauritius and Bourbon 926,364 bags of 164 lbs. each—equal to 151,923,696 lbs.; which, valued at three cents (1½d.) a pound, would make it worth 4,557,710 dollars, more than double the value of rice we export annually—over 2,000,000 dollars. In 1835, 66,000 bags of cleaned East India were imported into Liverpool, and only 450 casks Carolina. In 1839, 97,000 of East India, and none of Carolina. This, however, was owing to the importation in that year of the rough rice (169,000 bushels) which is now dressed in England. In the year 1840, Liverpool imported 130,000 bushels of paddy from America, and 77,800 bags of cleaned rice from India; showing a decrease on both kinds for that year. In 1837, some qualities of the Indian article sold at 18s., when Carolina was selling at 20s. a cwt.; and in 1841, the price of Patna (on the Ganges) cleaned, averaged 20s. 6d.

Coffee is also another article which is annually increasing in amount of importation and value. It is produced in almost every part of India; and within the last ten years, the beautiful island of Ceylon has been nearly turned into one entire coffee field. The quality of Ceylon coffee has greatly improved lately, and we now find it one of the most saleable varieties in the English market. In 1834 nearly three millions of pounds were sent to England; and in 1840, a Ceylon paper states, "the plantations are in a very thriving condition; waste lands are purchased with great avidity, and the next crop is expected to be a very abundant one." The export from British India to England, in 1834, (exclusive of Ceylon,) was over seven millions of pounds; and in 1840 the gross importations from the same sources (in and out of bond) more than fifteen millions of pounds. In Myers' Mercantile Gazette, of 5th April, 1841, we find "that in the first quarter of this year there had been received into Eng. and 63,437 bags and bales, and 1173 casks and tierces, exclusive of

17,132 bags of foreign East India coffee." There is no doubt, when the duty is reduced as is now contemplated, that the coffee from the East will keep the Brazil and other low kinds out of the market, and that it will continue to improve in its quality, as the demand for it will become more general.

In looking over the government tables, and the price current gazettes, we find, that since the throwing open of the East India trade in 1830, there has been a surprising increase in the importations of all the articles from that quarter of the globe—viz, indigo, jute, (coarse hemp,) hides, horns, raw silk, flax-seed, gums, *wheat flour*, ginger, castor oil of the finest quality, (an article which we also manufacture largely in Virginia,) saltpetre, rapeseed, black pepper, wool, and numerous other articles of great consumption, not only in Europe, but also in our own country. The Journal of Commerce of May 25th, 1841, speaking of the state of the colonial market says, "The increase in the imports from our eastern possessions this year is immense, and seems to indicate that the West India planters have more to fear from that quarter than from foreign competition. The Bengal indigo has driven the Carolina article out of the market in price and quality; and Europe and America are now principally supplied from thence. We find that the hemp from British India competes with that from Russia and Manilla, and that it is capable of fully supplying the present demand for the article, from the great variety of plants of the genus found in all parts of Asia. The import of hides into Liverpool from India was in 1835, 367,000, and in 1839, 443,000. The imports of raw silk from India have also augmented very much, I believe, as have the coarser kinds of the manufactured article.* Flax-seed is also sent in very large quantities. Up to the end of the first quarter of this year, the imports of Indian flax-seed were about a fourth of the whole quantity from all parts—United States, Canada, &c. Wheat flour is also exported for the manufacturing of starch, and we find that in 1835 there was brought into Liverpool 4,300, and in 1837, 18,700 bags from India. Ginger from India is a well-known article in our country; and we find in 1835 the imports into Liverpool were 14,000 pockets and bags, and in 1839, 36,500 of the same packages. Saltpetre in 1835 was 34,300 bags and boxes, and in 1839, 58,000 ditto. In 1837, 500 casks of rum were imported from British India into Liverpool, and in the *first quarter* of 1841 we find in the Liverpool Mercantile Gazette of "5th April," 285 punch-eons and 835 hogsheads from Bengal and other parts of British India, into the same port. Pepper is a fluctuating article, but we find in 1835, the imports were 14,000 bags and bales, and in 1839, 24,000 ditto. The wool from the East Indies is of a poor quality, and generally used in the coarser manufactures; such as horse blankets, &c. The imports in 1839 were over 1,500,000 lbs., and in 1840, 2,441,370 lbs.

Now what are the conclusions which are forced upon us by the consideration of these facts? I think it is fully proved by all modern writers on India—1st. That she is amply capable of producing almost any quantity of the very articles which form the principal exports from our southern states. 2d. That she is willing. 3d. That there is abundance of tilled and untilled land. And 4th. That labor is plentiful and cheap.

Reflection on these facts and circumstances must bring to our minds

* Bandana handkerchiefs class as raw silk when undyed.

the inquiry—Will the planters of the southern states be able to stand the coming active competition; not only as to *quantity*, but as to *quality* of material? I think it all resolves itself into one simple answer, that they who sell the cheapest of the same article, of whatever variety of merchandise, and no prohibitions in the way, will get the most custom.

I believe it can be safely asserted, that with the present costly system of labor at the south, they will be unable to compete with the East Indies. If we have been able to produce the same articles better and cheaper with a rich soil and ingenious machinery, it does not stand to reason, that other countries with the same soil and cheaper labor, may not take advantage of our improvements, and backed by a wealthy company, and encouraged by a powerful government, be able to defy our competition. It is not possible—it is against the very nature of our present system.

I hope the planters of our southern states may not be afraid to ask themselves the question, Can we meet this scarcely to be supposed change? Is it politic, or profitable to continue the present wasteful system of labor any longer? The answer of every candid man who inquires into the subject is, you cannot go on exhausting whole tracts of fertile land by this plan—moving further west every few years, and the original plantations falling back into a fruitless wilderness, (which is the operation at the south,) without ruining yourselves, and the country also.

But perhaps it will be asked by the planters—Suppose we change the system; shall we be able with free labor, and time-saving machinery, to compete with labor in the East at 13 cents a day? I think this is satisfactorily answered by the fact, that we have at *present* the supplying of the largest quantity of the *two* main articles in which the southern states are *directly* concerned—cotton and tobacco; and that with our ingenuity and skill, free labor at twenty-five cents a day, and a shorter distance, no American can doubt that we should be able fully to compete with India in cheapness of production. Give America full swing and an open market, and England dreads her more than any other competitor. The very reverse of this is the case at present; continuing in our present system, we shall gaze on the conflict, and tremble for the result.

A few words, and this paper will be brought to a close. It may be supposed that if India entirely supplies Britain with the articles that we now do, she (Britain) will impoverish herself by losing so valuable a market for her manufactures as the United States now is. But a glance at the facts of the case will convince us of the error of such an idea. If England loses seventeen millions of customers in America, she gains one hundred millions in India. It is a fact not generally known (particularly in America,) that the present consumption of British manufactures in the East Indies is not more than thirteen cents a year for each individual, in the whole population! Jamaica consumes twenty dollars a head, Trinidad thirty dollars, Cape colony thirty dollars, Australia forty dollars—and India only a New York shilling! Give justice to India in law and commerce, and how will it stand? At the moderate computation of five dollars a head, she would take to the extent of five hundred millions of British manufactures annually! What an amount to our present consumption of fifty millions of dollars!

The writer of this article has no desire to show his country in the worst of lights, or to exult over her mistakes and errors. Far from it. It has been his aim, in collecting these few, but important facts, to endeavor to

show, without excitement, and by a detail of that which cannot be contradicted, the ruinous course the southern people are now pursuing; and which must certainly involve them in confusion and loss at no distant day. Heartily desiring the substantial and solid prosperity of all classes of his countrymen; and the permanency of her democratic institutions, which he believes are based on truth and excellence, the author of this communication respectfully asks their perusal and consideration, of this *attempt* to lay before them that which concerns them very deeply.

ART. III.—SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MERCHANTS

INTRODUCTION.

Among the influences which lift men above present misfortune, and inspire them with courage at periods when even the prospect of success is vanished, there is none so strong as that which arises from the knowledge that similar misfortunes have been shared, and similar perils overcome, by those in whose path we are treading. The most intrepid man will waver, when he passes over a track in which the footsteps of past experience are invisible. But let him be told that through perseverance he will emerge from the gloom and confusion which is around him into the region to which his ambition is directed, and he will march forward with courage and with strength, inspired by the knowledge that there is scarcely a difficulty which he is to encounter which has not already been vanquished and driven from the field by many whose armor was no stronger than his own. His understanding is not only strengthened and convinced, but his enterprise is enlivened, and his ambition confirmed. We admire the stoutness of heart in those who stood undaunted in face of the disasters which were pouring upon them; and our admiration becomes before long converted, first, into a wish to follow the path which they have chalked out, and secondly, into a determination to pursue it. We see with distinctness the extent of human energy, when in its fulness it is developed; and we determine that the latent qualifications which in our own breast are lurking, shall be brought out and exercised in the degree in which they were formerly so successful.

The example of great and good men, while it gives us strength and courage to mount over the obstacles which are thrown in our path, leads us also by itself to good fortune. It teaches us the faculty of wise and moderate enjoyment; and it teaches us, therefore, to restrain ourselves, when prosperous, within those limits which in adversity we learnt to observe. By accustoming us to the idea that our fortune may take a sudden and disastrous turn, it guaranties us from despair and paralysis if the turn should actually take place. It tells us how to be moderate when moderation is unnecessary, in order that we may bear it with comfort when it should become inevitable. If such, therefore, is the general influence of the history of distinguished men upon those with whom the only affinity with which they are bound is that of humanity, it becomes worth while to

inquire to what purposes of usefulness the same influence may be bent, when he that is the subject of it, and those on whom it operates, stand in the same position, and are occupied in the same sphere. We proceed to consider to what extent the history of eminent merchants can be made profitable to the novice and even to the adept in the affairs of trade.

When we have determined on a pursuit that is to secure us a future support, and to obtain for us probable happiness, it becomes natural to inquire, What are the properties of the pursuit which we have chosen ;—what means are necessary for us to insure success ;—what difficulties and drawbacks will fall in our way ;—and what methods should we make use of to overcome them ? To one whose individual experience is limited, such questions can with difficulty be answered. The young man who enters upon the rugged and winding path of trade, cannot be supposed to foresee the stones on which he may stumble, or the ditch into which he may slip. He may misconstrue events that to the unpractised eye are apparently unimportant, but which, when they are introduced into the web of real life, modify or change its texture. Those various tools, which in the hand of the practised merchant alone are valuable, he may mishandle and abuse. By dangers which arise unexpectedly, because they arise in defiance of his crude opinions, by the subtlety or craft of those with whom he must deal, or by the accident which in each great system is ingredient, his schemes may be blasted, and he may be led himself into ruin, against which it required experience as well as prudence to guard. To acquire a guide so invaluable, is too often the work of a lifetime of toil and mortification ; but it is worthy of consideration, whether by falling back on the log-book of others who have steered through the same course,—whether by making use of their adventures as a plummet by which the depth of the stream may be told, and their chart as a memorial of errors that can be avoided or of points that can be made,—we may not arrive at the harbor to which we are bound by a simpler and more speedy route. We can observe, by a study of the history of merchants who have passed successfully through their business career, what means were used by them for the attainment of the end that was placed before them ; in what relations they were thrown before their entrance into the great occupation of their life, and how they passed the period of their novitiate ; what were the resources which they brought into play, and under what auspices their exertions commenced ; how far their peculiar condition, or the temporary aspect of trade, acted on their course ; in what degree their success was accelerated by prudent attention or lucky speculation, or to what extent their adventures were blighted by their carelessness, their errors, or their misfortunes.

If the life of a merchant should be thus represented,—if the whole track of his mercantile career be followed up, so that each important incident should be pointed out and elucidated ; if the influences which bore upon him, and their results, be exhibited ;—a history may be composed that would be of the highest use to those who wish to pursue the course which it would so fully detail. We learn the amount of general as well as mercantile information that may be advantageous to us in our occupation, and discover how injurious will be an inattention to subjects so important ; we discover how indispensable are industry, prudence, economy, and tact ; and how great was the eminence obtained by those who united elements so necessary. We become more attentive to qualifications which we see

are the touchstones of success, and give our best exertions to their acquisition.

Every scheme, every speculation of the merchant, should be built on a constant reference to the present condition of the world on which it is to act. His relations are based on the action of every-day life, his whole profession rests upon his constant intercourse with his fellow-men ; his maxims must be taken from reality itself, and his experience from his own achievements. It is not enough for him to be conscious of the existence of a fact on which his operations are to be founded ; he must search out for its remote origin, and look to its ultimate effects. A spirit of observation so extended will ward him from false opinions and wild speculations, it will show him that with which he has to deal in its essential form, and will impart to him the faculty of ripe and rapid judgment. It may be maintained that to arrive at such a knowledge there is no means so efficacious as to follow out step by step the biography of men who have preceded us in the career into which we are about to enter, to observe them in their various positions, to discover, as far as possible, the actuating motives by which they were led, and to trace out the character of their operation.

But useful as it may be to arouse in the mind feelings of a pure and exalted nature, it is not at such a goal that the biographer should restrain himself. There are but few men, if we look on mankind in a body, on whom the example alone of greatness is sufficient to produce a strong and lasting influence. The great mass think that their powers are not adequate to a career so lofty as that which is displayed before them, and satisfy themselves with the consolatory conclusion, that as it is the province of but few to be born great, their lot has fallen with the many to whom greatness would be beyond the sphere of possibility.

It becomes, therefore, the occasional duty of the biographer to choose his subjects from a class to which all, whose parts are moderate, whose ambition steady, and whose industry unwavering, can elevate themselves. To the historian of commerce, the merchant who has risen by slow but patient ascent to an eminence to which all, with ordinary capacity and the same determination, can arrive, is a far more suitable theme than he who, by a sudden leap, or a mad speculation, has pounced by accident on success ; for the track of the latter, like that of a comet, whose movements are the result of its own mad strength, or of some external preponderating attraction, can be seldom pursued ; but the orbit of the former, described as it is by the ordinary measure of life, and laid down within bounds which it requires but ordinary ability to follow out, is open to all whose industry and whose determination fit them for its course.

It is the first object in mercantile biography to represent each branch of trade as it exists in the practical world, and to exhibit in their true relief, the various incidents with which it is connected. In the same manner as by the study of the principles of trade we become acquainted with its theory and its character, we can learn, through the study of the lives of merchants, in what way the principles themselves can be brought into play, what practical bearings they possess, to what variations they are subjected by the circumstances under which they operate, what is the extent and scope of which they are capable, and to what degree of success they are calculated ultimately to lead. It would be well, if among the means which, to the honor of our race, are at present exerting for its elevation,

more stress was laid on the more practical methods by which men may be made wiser themselves through the wise example of others. The guide which is thus afforded is more potent than the representation of the most pungent maxims or the teaching of the purest morals, since the latter, even in the most attractive habiliments, are deficient in the interest which their intrinsic worth deserves. So long as the great mass of men are unconvinced of the *practicability* of those great theories on which commerce rests,—so long as they are unable to detect their wholesome working,—they will continue to hold them as fair but flimsy dreams, which are more calculated to arouse admiration than conviction, and which must yield, in practice, to the jar of circumstance and the pressure of necessity.

As we are accustomed to look at the ordinary affairs of life only in their direct relations, to take into account the immediate effects alone, without looking into those which are more remote, it is often not enough that our understanding should be convinced how important it would be for us to acquire certain qualities, or to master points which lay before us in our path, since we are apt even in such cases to deny the conclusion which is placed before us, and to question whether, when reduced to action, the course which is prescribed to us would, in fact, be so beneficial. It is here that biography comes in, and by showing the usefulness of the steps laid down, disarms the objection which is in most cases sufficient to overthrow theories the most just and the most practicable. We may hope that the time will soon arrive when the sound influence of biography on the intellectual and political education of mankind will be more generally recognised, and that the history of the life and the actions,—of the trials and the triumphs,—of men of every class, will be more frequently made use of for the instruction of those with whom their lot is similar.

CHARLES LOUIS MONTAUSSIER.*

Montaussier's father was a respectable merchant in Bordeaux, of considerable property and of large commercial connections. He was eminently successful in business until the unfortunate epoch of which we shall presently speak. He had but one son, Charles Louis, born in the year 1750, whom he brought up very carefully. As soon as the boy was old enough, his father accustomed him to business, gave him all the advantage of his own experience in commercial matters, which he understood thoroughly, and pursued such a successful plan with him, that at fourteen he had a fund of information rarely to be met with at his age. This is the more easily to be accounted for, as Charles seconded, by his quick mind and untiring industry, the exertions of his father. About this time his father sent him to a considerable house in Amsterdam. He paid his board there, but carefully concealed the fact from the young man, whom he desired should be treated in every respect as a common apprentice, since he knew that even the best brought-up young man needs a sharp look-out on him, and that those particularly who expect to have the supervision of a large number of workmen should begin by learning the exact condition of those whom they are to command. It would be well if all fathers in similar circumstances would follow his example, as most young merchants who serve

* From the German "*Lebensbeschreibungen merkwürdiger und berühmter Kaufleute.*" Nuremberg, 1832.

away from home as boarders, enjoy entirely too great freedom, not only as regards business, but in their whole course of life. The bad effects of this cannot be estimated, as they not only lose the opportunity of gaining valuable information, which should be their great aim, but they acquire a distaste for business, and a fondness for pleasures too often immoral in their tendencies, and are led on by the example of others to actions of which the evil consequences sometimes follow them to the grave. Montaussier passed four years in Amsterdam, and worked the whole time with great industry. He strove particularly to acquaint himself with the state of trade in Germany, as the intercourse between that country and his native town was at that time extremely important. His master at his departure testified his entire satisfaction with him, remained ever after his friend, and was the means afterward of rendering him several important services. After he had been two years at home, his father determined to send him on a journey to the north, in order that he might superintend his business, which lay mostly in that direction, and acquire at the same time a new stock of information. He set off in the year 1770 for Hamburg, where he passed a year among his father's friends, and in that time acquired a thorough knowledge of the trade of the region in which he was placed. He then went to Stockholm, where he remained a short time, and then directed his course to St. Petersburg. After a visit there, he went to a few ports on the Baltic, and from thence sailed to Lubec. On this voyage, the ship in which he sailed was overtaken by a violent storm. The danger soon became very great, as she had sprung a leak and began to let in water, and they were first obliged to lower the great mast, and then to throw all the furniture overboard. They soon found, however, that they must abandon the ship or perish; and the captain with the passengers and crew got into the small-boat, and after much peril arrived safely at Travemunde. Montaussier then travelled through the greater part of Germany, and returned to Bordeaux through Switzerland, having passed about four years on his travels. He had employed his time most advantageously, having examined carefully the peculiarities of trade in each country, and each large town through which he passed, and made himself acquainted with every thing that could have a bearing on his own commercial affairs. He observed also attentively the manners, morals, and government of the different people he visited, and acquired that ease of manner which is only to be gained by mixing in different sorts of society.

His father took him into his business as partner on his return, and found him a great assistance in his very arduous duties. He soon enlarged his father's trade considerably, and as he had made it his business when away to investigate the credit of their former friends, he broke off with many of them, and connected himself with others very extensively.

He had traded in partnership with his father very prosperously for about six years, when suddenly all his good fortune abandoned him. His father had a friend named Montaubert, whom he had always considered an honest man, but who had fallen into very embarrassed circumstances, and who had drawn bills of exchange on himself for a considerable amount, which, having failed, his creditors insisted on being paid, and threatened to arrest him. He immediately acquainted old Montaussier with the state of his affairs, imposed upon him by means of forged papers, and begged him to go bail for him for 80,000 *livres*. The old man, who was very much attached to his friend, and had perfect confidence in his integrity, allowed

himself to be persuaded, and gave the required security without further investigation, thinking the securities in his hands a sufficient pledge. Montaubert no sooner obtained his freedom, than he fled with all he had left, and entirely escaped the vigilance of his pursuers. Montaussier now began to suspect the baseness of his friend: he had the securities examined, and found that they were entirely false, and was obliged to pay himself the large sum of 80,000 *livres*, for which he had gone bail. It may be easily conceived that this great loss threw their business into some confusion; but they still kept their credit, and would have soon entirely recovered, had they not met several other misfortunes. Two great houses in Hamburg and London were then embarking in immense speculations, and desired from Montaussier a loan of from 50 to 60,000 *livres*, which, from his own experience, and every inquiry he made, he considered perfectly safe, and gave without further consideration. These speculations were, however, the last means which the houses had taken to extricate themselves from a most embarrassed state of affairs: they were unfortunate in them, and both failed within a month afterward. About the same time, a ship, of which he was the insurer, was taken by an Algerine corsair. These accumulated troubles were too much for him; he could no longer pay the bills of exchange due on him, and he failed therefore in a short time, in the year 1782. Two months afterward his father died, full of grief at leaving his son in such an unfortunate state. Montaussier had too much real greatness of mind to allow himself to be discouraged by these untoward circumstances; he bore his fate with firmness. Too noble to enrich himself at the expense of others, he acted in the arrangement of his affairs with a rare honesty and an almost unexampled generosity. His creditors were willing to take sixty per cent, and leave him whatever might remain, to assist him in recommencing business. This he steadily refused. As he had no family, and no one but himself to provide for, he considered it unjust that others should have to sacrifice any thing in order to assist him. He sold his house, his goods, his furniture, and implements of trade, and gave up all to his creditors, who now had ninety per cent. This conduct raised him so high in the estimation of his fellow-citizens and his foreign friends, that they were all anxious to assist him, and offered him greater credit than before. He made, however, no use of their offer, as he found himself almost entirely destitute, (his whole fortune consisting in about one hundred louis d'ors,) and did not wish to trust any more to the uncertainty of trade. Soon after he received, through the recommendation of one of his former creditors, the situation of overseer to a respectable and wealthy merchant in Lyons, named John Vertois. M. Vertois did a very considerable business, and possessed a large silk manufactory in which he employed a number of workmen; and as he was growing old, and had no son to whom he could intrust his affairs, he was in want of a person in whom he could place implicit confidence. This person he found in Montaussier, who entered with such zeal into his affairs, and improved and enlarged his business so much, that he won the confidence of his master entirely, who, in the year 1786, bestowed on him his only daughter in marriage, and took him in as partner in the business. A year afterward he died, leaving him a very considerable property. Montaussier continued the business now alone with great success; all his undertakings prospered, and it seemed as if fortune intended to repay him for all she had previously made him suffer. He was now in every respect in a most favorable posi-

tion; he possessed the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and was much admired in society on account of his polished manners, his extensive information, and his great experience.

In June, 1789, he was obliged to go to Paris on some important business. The state of things there roused his whole attention, and the warm interest he took in every thing relating to his native land, soon led him to discover the errors in the old government. The revolution broke out at last, in July. Montaussier took part in the occurrences of the first day, united himself with the armed citizens, and was among the foremost of those who stormed the Bastille, when he received a wound, which was not, however, of much consequence. As soon as Paris became quiet, he returned to Lyons, where he assisted the introduction of the new system, without, however, taking any public position. For some time he led a peaceful and happy life, devoted to his business, his family, and his friends. His commercial affairs continued to prosper, without being affected by the state of the country, until the year 1793, when he became involved in the sad fate of his native town; and after the conquest and destruction of Lyons, shared in the general slaughter of his fellow-citizens.

In order to understand these occurrences as far as they have reference to him, we must go back a little to the events which produced them.

The death of Louis XVI. did not meet in Lyons with the approbation which the ruling party expected; indeed, many gave open signs of displeasure, and expressed themselves against the Jacobins; who, enraged on that account, endeavored in every way to ruin the more moderate patriots. One in particular, named Challier, used all his exertions to push the people on to violent measures, and to introduce the reign of terror in Lyons. The excellent mayor, Nivière Chol with several other worthy men who held public offices, endeavored in every way to counteract his influence; and when they were on the point of breaking out, he ordered the troops out upon them, and thus frustrated for the time their plans. The Jacobins now turned to the convention, and represented the Lyonese as royalists, who persecuted all the true patriots. The convention, in order to sustain the Jacobins, sent off immediately two battalions to restore peace and order; and when they arrived they had recourse to the most violent measures. It was determined to establish a revolutionary army, for the support of freedom, which should be raised and maintained entirely at the expense of the rich. They therefore threw the most respectable citizens, whom they supposed to be rich, into prison, without giving any reason, and detained them there often a long time, without their being able to imagine the crime of which they were guilty. The municipality, which was now entirely composed of Jacobins, sported at its pleasure with the property and security of the citizens, and endeavored in every way to make the best patriots obnoxious. About this time the convention decreed that the sections should assemble, and resolve upon whatever measures were necessary to their security. The Lyonese made use of this to draw themselves out of their painful position. As soon as the Jacobins and the municipality remarked this, they endeavored in every way to prevent it; they armed the *clubists*, with their followers, and all assembled in the principal church. The sections also took up arms, and deposed the municipality, who, in their turn, declared that the sections should lay down their arms on pain of death. War was now declared, and the battle commenced in every part of the town, (May 30th, 1793.) The clubists

gave themselves up during the day to the greatest cruelties, killing and mutilating all the prisoners who fell into their hands ; while the citizens, on the contrary, treated their wounded opponents with the greatest kindness and compassion. The issue of the conflict was for a long time doubtful ; but the citizens at length conquered, drove their enemies back, and took possession of the most important posts of the town. One thousand five hundred of the citizens fell in this encounter, and still more of the clubists.

The sections now opened a subscription for the relief of those who had lost their fathers or husbands in the battle, and gave the same assistance to the widows and orphans of their enemies that they did to their own. The conquerors then sought out the enemies of peace and order, put them in prison, and then commenced their trial according to the strict rules of the law. Challier and Rierd alone were condemned to death ; while the other less reprehensible leaders received a slight punishment.

Montaussier showed himself all along very active in the good cause. He was the first in his section to insist on a general arming ; and he inspired by his firmness and the influence he possessed, many who would otherwise have given the whole thing up in despair. When he came to the battle he led on a small column, and took possession with it of a very important post ; upon the first attack he received a musket-ball in his arm, but he fought on unmindful of it, and did not give up until the post was taken.

It was then, when peace had been just restored at Lyons, that Paris was thrown into commotion by the well-known scenes of the 31st of May, in which the Jacobin deputies obtained a decisive victory over the opposite party. The convention resorted to violent measures to bring the refractory departments to submission ; and published a decree, by which the greater part of the inhabitants of Lyons were declared to be outlaws. Upon hearing this, the Lyonese sent several deputies to Paris to enforce the adoption of a constitution, and to endeavor to effect the repeal of the decree. They were received in such a manner as to give them no hopes of success, and only escaped imprisonment by a speedy flight. Among other requirements, they were desired to lay down their arms, and to give up the members of the new administration ; and upon their steady refusal, a considerable army was ordered out upon them.

Every preparation was now made in Lyons for a courageous defence ; the most important posts were fortified, and the citizens, amounting to about forty thousand, trained for arms. Montaussier gave his assistance in every way in his power ; he made several considerable loans of money to purchase ammunition, and provided several poor citizens in his battalion with the needful arms. He did every thing to inspirit his men, and took his stand with them at a most important post in the outworks, which, on account of his well-known patriotism, was intrusted to him. The besieging army in the mean while approached, and endeavored to storm the town on all sides, but were everywhere driven back.

The post which Montaussier occupied was one of the first attacked, and became the scene of a very violent conflict. Twice the convention's troops rushed upon the Lyonese, and twice were they repulsed : they waited for a fresh supply, and began the third attack ; their opponents, seeing their superiority in numbers, grew dispirited, and wavered. No sooner did Montaussier perceive this, than, calling to his friends to follow him, he

left the intrenchment, and rushed to meet the enemy. The courage of his men revived on seeing this ; they followed him, attacked the convention troops, who, astonished at their boldness, yielded almost immediately ; and Montaussier remained master of this most advantageous post.

Finding it impossible to take the town by storm, the besiegers determined to lay a regular siege to it ; and in order the sooner to effect their plans, they endeavored to sow dissensions among the besieged. They used great efforts to separate the sections from the government ; promised them full pardon if they would lay down arms, open the gates of the town, and give up the members of the municipality, of the administration, and of the executive corps. These propositions were received with contempt by the sections, whom it only served to render more hostile.

The Lyonese soon saw that great supplies of money would be needed to meet the daily demands ; they therefore established a fund, to be raised by contributions from each citizen proportionate to his income. The management of the treasury was intrusted to Montaussier and two other citizens, who acquitted themselves to the general satisfaction. The bombardment now commenced, and was carried on with the greatest vigor, particularly during the night. The arsenal, the most splendid buildings, and whole streets, were burnt down.

Montaussier was still commanding in the outworks, when, on the thirtieth day of the siege, 22d September, 1793, a fire broke out in several places in the street in which his family lived. His wife lay with her children in the deepest sleep, when, aroused by the noise, she awakened to find herself surrounded by flames. She escaped with great difficulty, by the help of a faithful servant, who also saved her youngest son ; the eldest was already a prey to the raging element. As they were endeavoring to escape from the burning street, a bomb fell, and killed her remaining child and the man who carried him.

Montaussier soon perceived from his post that the street on fire was the one in which he lived. Distracted about his family, whom he tenderly loved, he would willingly have laid down his life to be allowed to hurry to their assistance ; but duty and honor commanded him not to abandon the spot intrusted to him by his citizens in time of danger, and he remained. He suppressed his own griefs, gave with great presence of mind the necessary directions in case of an attack by the enemy, and only turned an occasional look towards the place where he was perhaps just losing all that was dear to him in life. Not until break of day, when every danger of an eruption was over, did he give up the command to the next officer, and hurried to the town to relieve himself of his torturing suspense. When he arrived at his house, he found it a heap of ruins, and no traces of his beloved family. He then hurried to the dwelling of a friend, where he found his wife, and heard the sad tale of their misfortunes. His grief was deep ; it was that of a tender father, but he did not suffer it to unman him ; he still rejoiced that his beloved wife, the dearest object to him on earth, was left to him. She showed uncommon firmness and fortitude, gave way to no useless complaints at her hard fate, but informed her husband that it was her firm determination to share his fate, to fight side by side with him for their native town, and with him to conquer or to die. She had long nourished this plan, but the strong ties of maternal love had kept her bound to her children. These ties were now severed ; she had nothing left but her husband, and she was determined to share his fate,

whatever that might be. Montausnier did all he could to dissuade her from this determination, but she was resolute, and set out with him the next morning for his post in full armor, where she conducted herself with all the bravery and skill of an experienced soldier.

Several days after this, Montausnier determined on making an attack upon the enemy, and driving them from a position very troublesome to him. Notwithstanding his remonstrances, his wife accompanied him, and did not stir from his side. The enemy was strong, and the conflict became very violent. Just as the Lyonese were gaining the advantage, Montausnier's horse was shot dead under him, and before he could rise, an officer held a pistol to his head and commanded him to surrender. His wife saw this, and took aim at the officer, but her pistol missed, and he shot her down before any one could come to her assistance. Montausnier had in the mean while risen, and rushed upon the officer, whom he killed; he then, thinking his wife dead, rallied his men round him, and made another desperate attack upon the enemy, which at last compelled them to fly. Upon returning to his wife, he found that, though mortally wounded, she was yet alive. Every thing was done for her that could be done, but her condition was desperate. She died a few hours after, full of joy that she had saved the life of her beloved husband, and that the sad fate was not reserved to her of surviving him. Montausnier had now lost every thing that could make life dear to him: the future had no charms for him; the only thing in which he felt an interest was the fate of his fellow-citizens. In their welfare he endeavored to lose sight of his own sorrows. A few days after this event, his post was attacked, through the treachery of a deserter, at the spot where it was most easy to break through. The Lyonese fought like men who are determined to maintain their post or perish, but the enemy was too numerous for them, and they were obliged to give way. Montausnier, after receiving two wounds, fought until a musket-ball, which he received in his thigh, threw him to the earth. Some of his men surrounded him and carried him off to the town; the others who remained to cover his retreat were almost all shot down. His wounds were, however, not dangerous, and he was able to walk again in two weeks.

The fate of Lyons was now drawing rapidly to its sad conclusion. The most important outworks and posts were lost, and the number of defenders had melted down from forty thousand to ten thousand. The people, pushed to the last extremity for want of provisions, began to murmur. Lyons had now, without fortifications or regular troops, held out seventy days against an army of more than a hundred thousand men, during which time, thirty thousand bombs, and a hundred thousand red-hot balls, besides the usual cannon balls, had been fired into the town, and reduced almost all the public buildings to ashes.

The government of the town and the commanding general now resolved upon a retreat, in order to save the members of the administration and the citizens who yet remained. Every preparation was made for their departure, and Montausnier was placed at the head of a department, when the plan was betrayed to the enemy, who filled the whole country round Lyons with troops. In the narrow passes of St. Cyr and St. Germain, the Lyonese were attacked on all sides by an army of fifty thousand men, and exposed to the incessant fire of a considerable artillery, with which the hills were covered. All their previous plans and precautions

were now entirely unavailing, and resistance was useless. The soldiers were either cut down or taken prisoners; only about forty men had the good fortune to escape death or imprisonment. Montaussier was resolved to die sword in hand, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy, from whom he could expect no mercy. He had already received two wounds, and could hardly hold himself upon his horse, but he refused all offers of quarter, and fought on until his horse was killed under him, when he fell to the ground and was taken prisoner.

He was brought back with the rest of the prisoners to Lyons, and put in prison, where his fate was soon decided. He was one of the leaders who, in the first few days after the taking of Lyons, were condemned to death. This early execution was a blessing to him, for it spared him the sight of the sufferings which his unhappy townsmen endured afterward, and which he would have felt so deeply. He heard his sentence with composure, like a man who knew his fate before, and did not dread it.

On the 10th of November he was led out on the wall to be shot. He found there one of his friends, who, less accustomed than he to the contemplation of death, showed great fear of it. Montaussier by his conversation inspired him with such confidence that he met his end courageously. Montaussier's turn came next; his last words were a prayer for his native land. He kneeled down, with his eyes unbandaged, and fell without a sound at the first shot.

Thus perished a man, estimable alike as a merchant, a father, a husband, and a citizen. By his own exertions he raised himself from very embarrassed circumstances to the highest degree of worldly prosperity and felicity. He fell unexpectedly from this high eminence, but no misfortunes could deprive him of that greatness of mind which raised him above all the trials of life.

ART. IV.—COMMERCIAL DOCKS.

INCREASE OF COMMERCE OF NEW YORK—ATLANTIC DOCK—DOCKS ON THE THAMES—LIVERPOOL DOCKS—BUTE DOCK—HUMBER AND HULL DOCKS—BASINS AT HAVRE, MARSEILLES, ANTWERP, AND ALBANY.

From the period of uniting the waters of the Atlantic with those of Lake Erie, there has been an increase of population, wealth, trade, and commerce in the city of New York, that has been rapid beyond all precedent. Possessing, as she does, all the prerogatives that the most sagacious minds and the most intelligent judges can invent or desire, this "queen of cities" is, and will continue to be, the great commercial mart of an almost unlimited territory, intersected by navigable rivers and extensive lakes, the shores of which are bordered with a soil prolific in all the resources of agricultural wealth, as well as in the products of the forests, the mine, and the chase. Her fame is borne in proud, but peaceful triumph, on the wave of every sea, to the bosom of every harbor; and her mercantile navy spreads a cheering welcome to every wind that blows. Her future greatness is marked out by numerous canals, railroads, and other channels of intercourse, to be continued, enlarged, or improved, which are to pour

upon her citizens the rich freights of the north, the east, the south, and the "far-famed west," as well as the luxuries of foreign climes, and thereby add to her increase and consequent wealth.

Upon these premises then, let us look about us and see if we are prepared to meet the exigences that this important subject demands.

It will be perceived by referring to a subsequent table, that the increase of population in the city of New York for the last twenty years, is 152,2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and that of the city of Brooklyn, which in the main is indebted for her growth to the increase of New York, is 384,7 $\frac{3}{8}$ per cent. And the present prospect, so far from indicating any diminution in the respective ratios of increase of these two cities, affords the almost certain assurance that the period is not very far distant when their joint population will equal or exceed half a million. The amount of tonnage of the vessels entering and departing from New York, has, of course, increased, and will continue to increase, in proportion to the increase of her inland trade. Although her present number of arrivals does not much exceed that of 1810, yet her amount of tonnage has increased more than 150 per cent since 1820—a remarkable coincidence of being of very nearly of the same ratio as her increase of population.* The amount of merchandise annually loaded and unloaded, within these last few years, is estimated at \$100,000,000 to \$120,000,000. Her tonnage is greater than that of any other city in the world, with the single exception of London, and constitutes more than one sixth of that of all the United States put together! The number of vessels in port in the busy season has been estimated at more than 800, exclusively of a great number of steamboats and smaller craft, the bulk of which usually lies between the Battery and Corlaer's Hook, on East river, and as high up as Canal-street, on North river. These portions of the port, at particular seasons, are often in so crowded a condition, that many vessels necessarily have to anchor off in the stream, and there discharge their freights with lighters or barges, or to wait for a week or ten days before they can secure a proper berth for unloading, and then, oftentimes, the best they can obtain is an outside one, which obliges them to discharge their cargoes over the decks of two or more other vessels. The consignee of the goods is unable to obtain them, and thereby disappoints his customers, and even frequently loses their sale in consequence of such delay. It is, moreover, a matter so well understood, that an allusion to it hardly seems necessary, that the increase and general use of steamboats, towboats, &c., in various forms, have created a demand for a species of dock room, and a kind of exclusive use thereof, which could not have been anticipated a few years ago. The increase of steam navigation has been so great that it has been driven, each year, more and more remote from the centre of business to obtain suitable accommodation, and the arrival of the European steamers which have awakened so lively an interest throughout the community these last three years, cannot fail to suggest that more ample provision will soon be required for this class of vessels. They cannot consistently intermingle with the other shipping at the crowded docks of this port on account of the immense space they occupy, their difficulty of access, and numerous other objections. The piers and

* See "Statistics of Population" in the Merchants' Magazine for the present month. See also "Commercial Statistics," page 283.—*Ed. Mag.*

wharves, during the busy season, are heaped in confusion with produce and merchandise, and the delays and other inconveniences caused by the want of proper accommodation, are often the most harassing, as well as expensive to the parties concerned. Circumscribed and limited, then, as the commercial district of New York is, and must continue to be, unless some favorable expedient offer itself, where shall the future increase of shipping that must eventually come to this port, find accommodation? Where shall we find room for the growing trade of the interior, when our enlarged canal and other great thoroughfares of intercommunication, now in progress, shall pour into the Hudson, and thence to our piers and slips, myriads of "craft" from a "thousand ports," laden with rich cargoes to be stored, transhipped, or consumed, without incurring expenses for cartage, warehousing, &c., too heavy to be endured? Can New York extend the limits of her water front, without reaching beyond "that convenient proximity to the business centre," which the lower part of the city affords, and which is likely forever to remain where several generations have fixed it? "Nature and common consent have alike determined the point, and it cannot be removed."

In order to surmount the foregoing difficulties, we think there has been no expedient proposed, if properly carried out, that will be more likely to succeed, and will better answer the desired end, than the ATLANTIC BASIN, the construction of which has lately been commenced in New York. This noble work has been undertaken by the "Atlantic Dock Company," a body corporate by an act of the legislature of the state of New York, passed May 6th, 1840; with a capital of \$1,000,000, and with a right to commence the operations of the company when \$100,000 are subscribed and paid in, which requisition has been complied with. The shares are \$100 each—are deemed personal property, and are transferable on the books of the company, or by an authorized attorney. Each shareholder is entitled to one vote at any election for directors, for every share of stock so held.

The object of the company is to construct piers and bulkheads, forming a basin to embrace a water surface of about 42 acres, to be surrounded by rows of spacious warehouses, to which any class of vessels, from the large ship of war down to the Erie canal boat, can come and discharge or receive freight, and where they can enter at any stage of the tide, and remain in perfect safety, in all kinds of weather, in every season of the year.

The work is located between Governor's Island and the Long Island shore, as shown on the annexed diagram, and is situated about one and a half miles from the Merchants' Exchange, in Wall-street. The location has been selected after thorough and careful soundings, and an examination of the ground under water, which was found easy for excavation, and free from rock; and also after considering its relative position and advantages to all the locations in and about this port. The shores of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey city, have all been examined by experienced and scientific gentlemen, and the result is, that the present location possesses many superior advantages over any other; being easy of access, and a short distance from the centre of business in New York. The distance of this location from the centre of business, and being on the opposite side of the river, cannot be deemed an objection, as it is not without precedent in other similar works. The "West India Docks," situated at Blackwall, on the river Thames, are about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the London Ex-

change, or the centre of the main business of London. The "Commercial Docks," constituting the largest basins of London, are situated on the south side of the Thames, while the bulk of business is transacted on the northerly side, where are also the Bank of England, Exchange, &c. The ordinary tides of the Thames are about twenty feet, which renders the crossing at all hours difficult. In our harbor the ordinary tides are only about five feet, and there are no impediments to crossing the East river at all hours, with a safety, certainty, and despatch, unequalled by any other mode of travelling the same distance. The expense also is trifling, and this will rapidly decrease under the present ferry regulations.

The whole work is under contract, and one half of the piers and bulk-heads will be ready for the erection of warehouses, and one half of the basin will be ready for use on the 1st of May, 1842. The land and water right designed for this object, embraces about 80 acres. The piers are to be constructed 150 feet wide, forming the front of the basin on the stream, divided by an entrance 200 feet wide. The depth of water in a portion of the basin at low tide is to be 25 feet, and on the outside of the pier as well as in the basin, the depth will be sufficient to moor the largest class of steamships or merchant vessels.

The utility and necessity of the proposed improvements, must be evident from the following considerations :

First. That the main business of New York is now, and in all probability will, for centuries to come, be transacted in and near Wall-street, where are situated the Customhouse, Exchange, Banks, Insurance offices, &c.

Second. That all the docks in New York, from the Battery to Corlaer's Hook, on East river, and as high up as Canal-street, on North river, are now full and crowded, and cannot afford additional accommodation.

Third. That the shipping interest of this port will prefer to go into the docks at Brooklyn, or the Atlantic Basin, rather than go up either river on the New York side further than the points above mentioned—especially when better accommodation can be had elsewhere.

Fourth. The benefit to vessels to be safely moored and protected against heavy gales of wind, tides, and currents, which annually do more or less damage to the shipping in harbors that are not land-locked and surrounded by high grounds or buildings.

Fifth. That vessels in a basin, with proper police regulations, are less liable to fire, robbery, and other depredations;* and experience has shown that they are better preserved, especially in their rigging and cables, being better sheltered than those moored at the wharves or in the stream.

Sixth. The erection of a contemplated *Floating Dry Dock* within the basin, will enable government as well as the shipowner to raise vessels out of the water more economically, expeditiously, and with less risk than by the usual method.

Seventh. From the use of this establishment in warehousing produce or merchandise, commerce will derive incalculable advantages by the despatch in loading and unloading goods, with a great reduction of expenses.

The facility for warehousing heavy goods on the piers and around the

* Previously to the construction of the wet docks on the Thames, the property annually pillaged from ships, was estimated to amount to £500,000 a year.

basin, such as iron, lead, dyewoods, tea, bags of coffee, molasses, sugars, spirits, wines, hides, cotton bales, wool, &c., which can be done directly from the ship's hold into the warehouse, would be a saving of 50 to 75 per cent. in cartage and all other expenses, including a redelivery, as has been computed by competent persons, after a careful investigation. To exemplify the foregoing, one fact among the many which daily occur, may be mentioned. An eastern manufacturing house recently purchased of one of our largest importing houses, 100 tons of iron, which had been deposited in their store No. 119 Greenwich-street, at the ordinary cartage expense of 50 cents per ton. The same expense (50 cents per ton) was incurred again in delivering it to the purchaser on board of an eastern packet, making \$1 per ton for cartage, besides additional expenses for labor. If on the arrival of this iron from a foreign port, it had been deposited in a warehouse on these piers, and when sold, put directly on board the eastern packet, lying at the pier fronting the warehouse, the reader will perceive that two cartages and much extra labor would have been saved. The annual amount paid in the city of New York for the cartage of produce or merchandise that requires reshipment, has been estimated, by competent judges, to be at least half a million of dollars, a considerable part of which would be saved if this portion of business were done at the Atlantic Basin.

A comparison of this work with others of a similar kind, cannot fail to present a favorable view of its utility and importance.

WEST INDIA DOCKS.—It is singular that, notwithstanding the obvious utility of wet docks, and the vast trade of the British metropolis, there was no establishment of this sort on the Thames till nearly a century after a wet dock had been constructed at Liverpool. The inconvenience arising from the crowded state of the river, at the periods when fleets of merchantmen were accustomed to arrive, the insufficient accommodation afforded by the legal quays and sufferance wharfs, the necessity under which many ships were placed of unloading in the river into lighters, and the insecurity and loss of property thence arising, had been long felt as almost intolerable grievances; but so powerful was the opposition to any change, made by the private wharfingers and others interested in the support of the existing order of things, that it was not till 1793, that a plan was projected for making wet docks for the port of London; and six years more elapsed before the act for the construction of the West India Docks was passed. They were first, and continue to be the most extensive, of the great warehousing establishments formed in the port of London. Their construction commenced in February, 1800, and they were partially opened in August, 1802. They stretch across the isthmus, joining the Isle of Dogs to the Middlesex side of the Thames. They originally consisted of an Import and Export Dock, the names of which denote their uses, each communicating, by means of locks, with a basin five or six acres in extent at the end next Blackwall, and with another more than two acres at the end next Limehouse; both of these basins communicate with the Thames. To these works, the West India Dock Company have since added the South Dock, formerly the City Canal, which runs parallel to the Export Dock. This canal was intended to facilitate navigation, by enabling ships to avoid the circuitous course round the Isle of Dogs. It was, however, but little used for that purpose, and is now appropriated to the lumber trade, for the greater accommodation of which, a pond of nine-

teen acres has been formed within a few years on the south side for the reception of bonded timber.

	Length. Yards.	Width. Yards.	Area. Acres.
Export Dock, - - -	870 - - -	135 - - -	24 $\frac{1}{4}$
Import Dock, - - -	870 - - -	166 - - -	29 $\frac{3}{4}$

The South Dock, which is appropriated both to import and export vessels, is 1183 yards long, with an entrance to the river at each end; both the locks, as well as that into the Blackwall Basin, being 45 feet wide, or large enough to admit ships of 1200 tons burden. At the highest tides, the depth of water in the docks is 24 feet; and the whole will contain, with ease, 600 vessels of from 250 to 500 tons. The separation of the homeward bound ships, which is of the utmost importance for preventing plunder, and giving additional security to the revenue and the merchant, was, for the first time, adopted in this establishment. The Import and Export Docks are parallel to each other, being divided by a range of warehouses, principally appropriated to the reception of rum, brandy, and other spirituous liquors. There are smaller warehouses and sheds on the quays of the Export and South Docks, for the reception of goods sent down for exportation. The warehouses for imported goods are on the four quays of the Import Dock. They are well contrived, and of great extent, being calculated to contain 160,000 hhds. of sugar, exclusively of coffee and other produce. There have been deposited, at the same time, upon the quays, under the sheds, and in the warehouses belonging to these docks, 148,563 hhds. of sugar, 70,875 casks and 433,648 bags of coffee, 35,158 puncheons of rum and pipes of Madeira wine, 14,021 logs of mahogany, 21,350 tons of logwood, &c., which have been estimated as high as £20,000,000! The whole area occupied by the docks, warehouses, &c., includes about 295 acres; and the most effectual precautions are adopted for the prevention of fire and pilfering.

This spacious and magnificent establishment was formed by subscription, the property being vested in the West India Dock Company, the affairs of which are managed by 21 directors, as a body corporate. The right of voting is vested in those shareholders only who hold £500 of the company's stock. The company's capital is £1,380,000.

The West India Docks have proved a very successful undertaking, and have been highly beneficial to the original shareholders. All the West India ships frequenting the Thames were obliged to use them for a period of 20 years from their completion. The dividend on the company's stock was limited to 10 per cent.; and after making dividends to the full amount, with the exception of the first half year, they had in 1819, an accumulated fund of nearly £400,000. But they then diminished their charges at the suggestion of the Committee of the House of Commons on the foreign trade of the country, so as to give the trade using the docks the benefit of the surplus fund, which was to be reduced to £100,000 before the 30th of January, 1826. Latterly, the company have been obliged, in consequence of the competition of other companies, to make further reductions of dividend. At present, the company's stock sells at about par.

The nearest dock-gate, at Limehouse, is about three miles from the Exchange; and the other, next Blackwall, about half a mile more. This distance has the disadvantage of increasing the expense of cartage, and of being inconvenient to the merchants and others using the docks. On

the other hand, however, ships entering the West India Docks, avoid a considerable extent of troublesome, if not dangerous navigation, that must be undertaken by those bound for the St. Katharine's and London Docks.

In almost all docks and harbors, a serious evil is felt from the constant accumulation of mud, and the consequent expense of preserving the proper depth of water. In various situations, provision has been made for scouring out or raising out mud and sand, by means of backwater, dredges, &c., according to local circumstances; but in the West India Docks, the evil has been entirely obviated. The water of the Thames is generally very muddy, and when it is admitted into the basins and docks in large quantities to replace the water lost by evaporation, leakage, locking vessels in and out, &c., the deposit is very great. All the gates of the locks point inwards, to sustain the water of the docks. As long as the water within is higher than the level of the river, those gates remain closed; but as soon as the river rises above the level of the Blackwall Basin, the gates of the outer lock are thrown open. While the gates of the two locks at the west end of the basin remain closed, the influx from the river would not be considerable; but when the tide has risen above the level of the Import and Export Docks, those gates would also be thrown open, and then the river would flow in with considerable force—the muddy water discoloring that of the docks, and of course depositing the silt or mud held in suspension. These facts show that the exclusion of the river water was the only effectual remedy for the evil; but the loss or waste of water from the docks was equal on an average to five inches over the whole surface in 24 hours, and this loss had to be supplied; and not only that, but to keep the river out, it was necessary at all times to keep the water of the docks and basins up to a higher point than that to which the river would rise at the highest spring tides. After long consideration, the following plan was matured for effecting this object:—The company's spare land on the north side of the Blackwall Basin lay below high-water mark, and there three reservoirs were formed. The two next the basin received the water from the river by a culvert with sluices, which are closed as soon as they are filled; from these the water is pumped by an engine of 36 horse power, after having had time to deposit the silt into the elevated reservoir, from whence it flows by a conduit into the basin, and thence into the dock, and in this manner the level of the whole is kept up to the highest point which can be desired, and the river Thames with its mud is no longer admitted. The great body of water in the docks is thus constantly maintained, and is at all times clear and sweet, and no mud will hereafter be deposited; great advantage arises, however, from the depth of water, which is preserved from fluctuating with the level of the neap and spring tides, as the deepest laden ship can at all times be transported—the depth throughout being from 23 to 26 feet.

LONDON DOCKS.—These were the next undertaking of this sort set on foot on the Thames. They are situated in Wapping, and were principally intended for the reception of ships laden with wine, brandy, tobacco, and rice. The Western Dock covers a space of above 20 acres; and the New or Eastern Dock covers about seven acres. The Tobacco Dock lies between the above, and exceeds one acre in extent, being destined solely for the reception of tobacco ships. The entire space included with-

in the outer dock wall is $71\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The two docks, the largest and the smaller, can accommodate 800 ships. The warehouses are capacious and magnificent. The great tobacco warehouse on the north side of the Tobacco Dock, is the largest, finest, and most convenient building of its kind in the world. It is calculated to contain 24,000 hhds. of tobacco, and covers the immense space of nearly five acres! There is also a very large tobacco warehouse on the south side of the Tobacco Dock. These warehouses are wholly under the management of the officers of customs; the dock company having nothing whatever to do with them, save only to receive the rent accruing upon the tobacco deposited in them. The vaults are under the tobacco and other warehouses; they include an area of about $18\frac{1}{2}$ acres, and after allowing for gangways, &c., have stowage for 56,000 pipes of wine and spirits! These docks were opened in 1805. All ships bound for the Thames, laden with wine, brandy, tobacco, and rice, (except ships from the East and West Indies,) were obliged to unload in them for the space of 21 years; but the monopoly expired in January, 1826, and the use of the docks is now optional.

The only entrances to the London Docks were, until within a few years, by the basins at Hermitage and Wapping. Since, however, another entrance has been completed from Old Shadwell Dock, through what was formerly Milkyard, to the Eastern Dock. This new entrance is three fourths of a mile lower down than Wapping entrance, and is a most material improvement.

The capital of the company amounts to £3,238,310 5s. 10d. A considerable portion of this vast sum, and of a further sum of £700,000 borrowed, were required for the purchase of the houses, about 1300 in number, that occupied the site of the docks. Notwithstanding this enormous outlay, the annual dividends have amounted to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The board of directors consists of 25 members, of whom the Lord Mayor, as conservator of the river Thames, is one.

EAST INDIA DOCKS.—These docks, situated at Blackwall, though inferior in extent to the London and West India Docks, are yet sufficiently capacious. They were originally intended for the accommodation of ships employed by the East India Company, or in the East India trade; but they are now open to vessels from all parts. There are two docks—one for ships unloading inwards, and one for those loading outwards. The Import Dock contains about 18 acres, and the Export Dock about 9 acres. The entrance basin which connects the docks with the river, contains about $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The length of the entrance lock is 210 feet, the width of the gates, 48 feet clear. The depth of water in the East India Docks is never less than 23 feet; so that they can accommodate ships of greater burden than any other establishment on the river. There is attached to them a splendid quay, fronting the river, nearly 700 feet in length, with water sufficient at all times of the tide to float the largest steamers, and the Export Dock is furnished with a machine for masting and dismasting the largest ships.

These docks are situated $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles from the Royal Exchange. The company's capital, including the cost of the city warehouses, is £623,000. The shareholders receive an annual dividend of 6 per cent, and the stock ranges considerably above par. The management is committed to twelve directors, each holding £1200 stock.

ST. KATHARINE'S DOCKS.—These docks are situated immediately below the Tower, and consequently are the most contiguous of any to the city, the customhouse, and other places where business is transacted. They were partially opened on the 25th of October, 1828. The capital raised by shares amounts to £1,352,800; but an additional sum of £800,000 has been borrowed on the security of the rates, for the completion of the works, and the purchase of a freehold property possessing river frontage from the Tower to the corner of Lower East Smithfield, of the value of upwards of £100,000, but not required for the immediate objects of the company. The purchase of the numerous houses that stood upon the ground occupied by the docks, proved, as in the case of the London Docks, a heavy item of expense. The space included within the outer wall is about 24 acres, nearly 11 of which are water. There are two docks, communicating by a basin, which are capable of containing from 150 to 160 ships, besides craft. The lock leading from the river is 195 feet long and 45 broad, and is crossed by a swing bridge 23 feet wide. This lock is so constructed, that ships of upwards of 600 tons burden may pass in and out three hours before high water, so that outward bound ships have the opportunity of reaching Blackwall before the tide begins to recede. The depth of water at spring tides is 28 feet in the lock, and thus ships of 600 and 800 tons burden can come up the river with a certainty of admission into the docks, as the depth of water at the entrance exceeds that of any other work of the kind in the port of London. Vessels are also docked and undocked by night as well as by day,—an advantage peculiar to this establishment. A clear channel of not less than 300 feet in width, is at all times to be kept in the pool; and vessels drawing 18 feet water, may lie afloat at low water at the principal buoy off the dock entrance.

The appearance of the St. Katharine's Docks differs in many respects from that of the other docks. Beauty and ornament have been sacrificed for utility. No spacious quays nor long ranges of warehouses are to be seen here—notwithstanding the area enclosed is 24 acres, and the place has the appearance of being crowded and confined. But the warehouses make up in height and depth whatever they are deficient in length. They are six stories high, and have vaults below which serve as extensive depositories. The ground floors of the warehouses towards the docks are 18 feet high, open, and supported by pillars,—a contrivance by which labor and space are saved, for vessels in the docks can come close to the warehouses, and discharge their cargoes directly from their holds, without it being necessary, as in the West India and London Docks, to land them on quays.

Although the St. Katharine's Docks are deficient in extent when compared with the other docks, yet the solidity of the buildings, the completeness and ingenuity of the mechanical apparatus, as well as the entire arrangements, reflect the greatest credit on the public spirit, enterprise, and skill of those by whom it was projected and executed.

For many years great jealousy and precaution were exercised at the other docks about the Thames, in the admission of strangers and visitors, who were required to procure tickets, or orders for admission from a director at the gates. But all this is now abolished—the gates of the different docks are freely open during working hours to the passing stranger, the vigilance of the gate-keepers, and of the dock constables or watchmen, being considered sufficient for the protection of the varied and valuable property within.

the number of individuals who pour out of the docks when the hour of closing them arrives, is not a little remarkable. Revenue officers, clerks, warehouse-keepers, engineers, coopers, and laborers of every grade, seem actually to block up the way. It is estimated that the average number of persons employed in the St. Katharine's, London, East and West India Docks, is about 5,000.

COMMERCIAL DOCKS.—Exclusive of the previously mentioned docks, all of which are on the north side of the Thames, there are on the south side the Commercial Docks, opposite to the East and West India Docks. They include a space within the outer wall, of about 49 acres, nearly 38 of which are water. They are principally intended for the reception of vessels laden with timber, corn, and other bulky commodities. They have but little accommodation for warehousing, and their establishments are not constructed so as to entitle them to bond all goods.

DOCKS AT KINGSTON-UPON-HULL.—It is but little more than half a century since the first of these docks was completed; before that time the river Hull below the bridge was the only safe harbor in the port, and in this narrow confined space the shipping and small craft were so crowded together, that it was often with great difficulty they could have access to the quays to take in or deliver their cargoes, and damage was sustained by the larger vessels from grounding every tide. It also sometimes happened that the harbor was incapable of containing all the shipping that frequented the port, in which case they were laden and delivered in the river Humber by means of craft, at the expense of much delay and considerable additional charges. These inconveniences, and the want of a legal quay, with the complaints they gave rise to, on the part of the revenue officers, at length led to the formation of a dock, which in time was followed by another. But, extensive and commodious as were the Old and Humber Docks, for want of a ready passage between them they were still incomplete,—the Junction Dock has perfected the communication; and instead of being surrounded as formerly, by fortified walls and deep ditches, which had latterly become stagnant pools, the common receptacles of filth and nuisance, the town is now encircled by the rivers Humber and Hull, and three spacious and commodious docks; improving the public health by the assistance afforded to drainage through the liberality of the Dock Company, and rivalling, in convenience for mercantile men, and facilities for the despatch of business, those of any port in the kingdom. These and the means of inland communication, enjoyed or in prospect, with a district peculiarly rich in minerals and manufactures, added to its situation on so noble an estuary, and its contiguity to the continent, cannot fail to maintain the eminent rank Hull has hitherto held among British ports.

An act of parliament for the construction of the Old Dock was obtained in April, 1774. At that period works of this kind were in their infancy, and we should not therefore look for the degree of perfection, either in design or execution, which has distinguished those of more recent times. By their charter, the company were allowed seven years for finishing this dock, but by great exertions the work was completed in four years, and it was opened on the 22d of September, 1778. From the ruinous state in which the lock and basin were, it became necessary to rebuild them in 1814. This lock and basin were finished and re-opened on the 13th of November, 1815.

	Length. <i>Fcet.</i>	Breadth. <i>Fcet.</i>	Area. <i>Acres. Roods. Rods.</i>			No. of Ships.
Old Dock, . .	1703 . .	254 . .	9	3	29	100
Basin, . .	213 . .	80½ . .	0	1	23	
Depth of water on Sills, at						
			<i>Neap Tides.</i>		<i>Spring Tides.</i>	
Entrance Lock, 120½ . .		38 . .	14 ft.			20 ft.
Warehouses, . .	345 . .					
Sheds, . .	143 . .	23				
" . .	492 . .	23				

In 1802, an act of parliament was passed for the construction of the Humber Dock, and the work was begun the following year, and opened for business with due honors on the 30th of June, 1809. The expense was defrayed by the Dock Company, and the Corporation, and Trinity House jointly.

	Length. <i>Fcet.</i>	Breadth. <i>Fcet.</i>	Area. <i>Acres. Roods. Rods.</i>			No. of Ships.
Humber Dock, . .	914 . .	342 . .	7	0	24	70
Basin, . .	435 . .	267 . .	2	3	2	
Depth of water on Sills, at						
			<i>Neap Tides.</i>		<i>Spring Tides.</i>	
Entrance Lock, 158 . .		42 . .	20 ft.			26 ft.
Sheds, . .	754 . .	25				

By a clause in the Humber Dock act, the company were required to make a third dock whenever the shipping of the port attained a certain amount of tonnage therein specified, provided a moiety of the expense was furnished them for the purpose. Some difficulties having, however, taken place in raising the stipulated supplies, the company, impressed with the urgent necessity of making another dock, resolved, much to their honor, to execute it solely at their own expense, and the preliminary arrangements having been made, the work was begun in 1826, and was publicly opened, under the name of the Junction Dock, on the 1st of June, 1829.

	Length. <i>Fcet.</i>	Breadth. <i>Fcet.</i>	Area. <i>Acres. Roods. Rods.</i>			No. of Ships.
Junction Dock, . .	645 . .	407 . .	6	0	5	60
Depth of water on Sills, at						
			<i>Neap Tides.</i>		<i>Spring Tides.</i>	
Entrance Lock, 120 . .		36½ . .	14 ft.			20 ft.

The rise or flow of an average spring tide at Hull, is about 21 feet at the harbor mouth, and 17 feet at the entrance to the Old Dock; that of an average neap tide, 12 feet at the harbor mouth, and 9 feet opposite the Old Dock entrance. But it may be observed, that the tides occasionally rise three to four feet higher, and sometimes, though rarely, a little more, and ebb sometimes two feet or more lower, than stated above. It may be proper to notice also, that when there are many vessels in the harbor, the ebb is not so low by nearly a foot, as when it is clear of shipping.

LIVERPOOL DOCKS.—The first wet dock in the British empire was constructed at Liverpool, in pursuance of an act of parliament, obtained in 1708. At this period Liverpool was but an inconsiderable town; and the accommodation she has derived from her docks, is one of the circumstances that has done most to promote her extraordinary increase in commerce, population, and wealth. A second wet dock was opened about the middle of the last century; and since that period many more have been constructed, some of them on a magnificent scale, and furnished with all sorts of con-

veniences. When those now in progress are completed, the total area of water will exceed 90 acres.

In spring tides, the water rises in the Mersey about 30 feet, and in neap tides about 15 feet.

The Liverpool docks are all constructed upon the estate of the Corporation, and are managed by commissioners appointed by parliament. The warehouses belong to individuals, and are private property.*

BUTE DOCK, &c.—The chief other *Wet Docks*, designed for commercial purposes in Great Britain, are those situated at Goole, Leith, Hartlepoole, and Cardiff, the latter of which was constructed by the Marquis of Bute, between 1834 and 1839, at an expense of £300,000. On passing the sea-gate, where there is 17 feet of water at neap, and 32 feet at spring tides, vessels enter a capacious basin of $1\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The main entrance lock is 152 feet long and 36 feet wide; being sufficient to admit ships of 600 tons burden. Beyond the lock is an inner basin which contains about 20 acres, calculated to accommodate in perfect safety, from 300 to 400 ships of all classes. In order to keep the channel free from deposit, a feeder from the river Taff supplies a reservoir of 15 acres, adjoining the basin. This reservoir can be discharged at low water into the basin by means of powerful sluices, at the rate of 100,000 tons of water per minute, which will produce a current sufficiently strong to free the bottom from mud, silt, and other deposits that may be formed.

BASINS AT HAVRE.—The harbor of Havre consists of three basins, enclosed within the walls of the town, affording accommodation for about 450 ships. From the crowded condition of the port, and the inconveniences experienced on the arrival of the great steamers, which frequent its waters, a new dock is contemplated, that will do much to promote the commercial interests of the Seine, particularly to the class of vessels above referred to. At present, all large ships are under the necessity of lying in the great road, in six or seven fathoms of water, and consequently are endangered by the severe gales that often occur on that coast. The rise of the tide is from 22 to 27 feet; and by taking advantage of it, the largest class of merchantmen enter the port. The water in the harbor does not begin perceptibly to subside till about three hours after high water,—a peculiarity ascribed to the current down the Seine, across the entrance of the harbor, being sufficiently powerful to dam up for a while the water of the latter. Large fleets, taking advantage of this circumstance, are able to leave the port in a single tide, even though the wind should be unfavorable.

BASIN AT MARSEILLES.—The harbor of Marseilles, the access to which is defended by several strong fortifications, is in the centre of the city, forming a basin 1050 yards in length, by about 300 in breadth. The tide is hardly sensible; but the depth of water at the entrance to the harbor varies from 16 to 18 feet. Within the basin the depth of water ranges from 12 to 24 feet, being shallowest at the north and deepest at the south side. Dredging machines are kept constantly at work to clear out the mud, which is chiefly accumulated by the wash of the city, and to prevent the harbor from filling up. Though inaccessible to the largest class of ships, Marseilles is one of the best and safest ports in the world for moderate sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate above 1000. Ships in

* Vide McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary.

the basin lie close alongside the quays, and there is every facility for getting them speedily loaded and unloaded.

BASINS AT ANTWERP.—In 1803, a new impulse was given to the commerce of Antwerp, as well as to the general prosperity of all Belgium, by an invincible decree of the great Napoleon. Three extensive basins were constructed at his order in the above-named city, sufficiently deep to admit the largest class of ships, which can penetrate the very heart of the city by means of eight canals. The harbor is safe and commodious, and will contain at one time more than 1000 ships.

BASIN AT ALBANY, N. Y.—On the completion of the Erie Canal, the enterprising citizens of Albany, alive to their best interests, foresaw the necessity of a dock or basin for the accommodation of their ordinary shipping as well as for the vast number of canal boats that were swarming upon them. A commodious basin was soon formed, containing about 32 acres, by means of erecting a pier 80 feet in width, along the westerly bank of the Hudson, which was laid out into lots 30 feet in front, with warehouses on the same, 50 feet deep. The pier is connected with the main shore by drawbridges, and is accessible at all times. The basin is sufficiently deep and capacious for the trade and commerce of the place, and has proved a very successful undertaking. Soon after its construction, a portion of the pier lots were sold, which afforded a profit of 16 per cent to the shareholders, exclusively of paying the first cost of the work; and the stock of the company sells at present for 55 per cent, which is equal to about 71 per cent nett gain.

ART. V.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

NUMBER XI.

MISSOURI.

It is intended in this article to give a succinct view of the laws of Missouri, on those subjects in which mercantile communities abroad, having business connections with the merchants of that state, may be likely to be interested. A careful attention to, and examination of, the information here given, may, in some instances, be of service in cases of emergency. It will be seen that, in Missouri, as far as legal enactments are concerned, the creditor is placed upon as favorable a footing as in any other state, and upon a much better one than in some states, where the laws present *an inducement* to debtors to depart from the path of strict mercantile integrity.

COMMON LAW.

The common law of England, and all statutes and acts of parliament, made prior to the fourth year of the reign of James the First, and which are of a general nature, not local to that kingdom, and not repugnant to, or inconsistent with the constitution of the United States, that of Missouri, or the statute laws in force for the time being, shall be the rule of action and decision in Missouri.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

A written acceptance by a party or his agent, is absolutely necessary to charge him as acceptor. Such acceptance may be written on a paper other than the bill; but it will not bind the acceptor, except in favor of a person to whom such acceptance shall have been shown, and who, in faith thereof, shall have received the bill for a valuable consideration. An unconditional promise in writing to accept a bill before it is drawn, shall be deemed an actual acceptance in favor of every person to whom such written promise shall have been shown, and who, upon the faith thereof, shall have received the bill for a valuable consideration.

Damages are allowed on bills which are expressed to be *for value received*, and which are *protested* for non-acceptance or non-payment. When the bill is drawn or negotiated within this state, there shall be allowed and paid to the holder by the drawer or endorser, having due notice of the dishonor of the bill, damages in the following cases:

First. If the bill shall have been drawn on any person, at any place within this state, at the rate of four per cent on the principal sum specified in the bill.

Second. If drawn on any person, at any place out of this state, but within the United States, or the territories thereof, at the rate of ten per cent.

Third. If drawn on any person at any port or place without the United States, and their territories, twenty per cent.

These provisions, it will be seen, apply only to drawers and endorsers. Acceptors are liable, also, to pay damages, when the bill is drawn on them at any place within the state, in the following cases:

First. If drawn by any person, at any place within this state, four per cent.

Second. If drawn by a person at a place without this state, but within the United States, or their territories, ten per cent.

Third. If drawn by a person at a place without the United States, and their territories, twenty per cent.

The damages allowed, as above, are in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and other charges, incurred previous to, and at the time of giving notice, or the time when the principal sum shall become payable, when no notice of the dishonor is required to be given; and the holder of the bill is entitled to demand and receive lawful interest on the aggregate amount of the principal *and* damages, from the time notice is given, and payment of the principal sum demanded; or from the time of the non-payment of the bill by the acceptor.

PROMISSORY NOTES.

The statutes of this state create a distinction between different kinds of promissory notes, by making a note drawn in one form negotiable, and that drawn in another form not so. This is intended to suit the mixed character of the population of the state, and is, in some respects, salutary. A simple promise to pay money or property to a person or his order, or to bearer, imports a consideration, whether expressed to be for value received or not, and is due and payable as therein expressed. Such notes are assignable, but an assignment does not deprive the maker of any defence or set-off which he may have had against the note, if it had remained in the hands of the payee.

If, however, the note be expressed on the face of it to be for value received, negotiable and payable without defalcation, it is declared to be negotiable in like manner, and to have the same effect as inland bills of exchange. This kind of note is mainly used in commercial transactions, and the relations to each other of the different parties to it are governed by the principles of mercantile law.

In the case of notes not negotiable, an assignor or endorser cannot be sued until the holder shall have used due diligence in the institution and prosecution of a suit against the maker; or unless the maker is insolvent, or is not a resident of, nor residing in the state, so that a suit would be unavailing, or could not be instituted. In a suit against an endorser of such a note, however, if the plaintiff can show that he has used due diligence in the institution and prosecution of a suit against the maker, he is not required to prove notice to the endorser of the non-payment of the note, as he is in the case of a negotiable note. Where the note is in negotiable form, it is not necessary to sue the maker before an endorser can be sued; but the holder may coerce payment from any party to the note, as in the case of a bill of exchange.

JUDICIAL ORGANIZATION AND JURISDICTION.

The highest judicial tribunal is the supreme court, which is composed of three judges, and holds its terms twice in every year, in each of four districts into which the state is divided. Its jurisdiction is exclusively appellate.

The circuit courts have exclusive original jurisdiction in all cases not cognizable before the county court, or justices of the peace, and appellate jurisdiction from the judgments and orders of the county courts and justices of the peace. It is held by one judge, in each county of the state, three times in the year.

The county courts have cognizance of all county business; all matters relating to the appointment and removal of executors, administrators, and guardians, and the settlement of their accounts; and before them demands against the estates of deceased persons are presented for allowance. Their decisions are subject to be reviewed by the circuit courts, either on writ of error or appeal.

The St. Louis court of common pleas is a new court, with civil jurisdiction only, which has recently been established in the city of St. Louis. It will hold four terms in a year, and will afford very great facilities in the collection of debts. It can take cognizance, originally, of actions founded on contract only.

The jurisdiction of justices of the peace extends to actions of debt, covenant, and assumpsit, and all other actions founded on contract, where the debt or balance due, or damages claimed, exclusive of interest, does not exceed ninety dollars; and to all actions founded on bonds and notes for the payment of any sum of money, not exceeding, exclusive of interest, one hundred and fifty dollars. Justices of the peace hold their courts on a given day once a month, and executions issued by them are returnable at the end of thirty days. Such executions are not a lien on the debtor's property.

JUDICIAL PROCESS.

Summons.—The ordinary process by which suits are commenced is a summons. This is issued upon a declaration being filed, and is served, either,

First—By reading the declaration and writ to the defendant ; or,

Second—By delivering him a copy of them ; or,

Third—By leaving a copy of them at his usual place of abode, with some white person of the family over the age of fifteen years.

But in all cases where the defendant refuses to hear the writ and declaration read to him, or to receive a copy, the offer of the officer to read them or deliver a copy, and such refusal, are sufficient service of the writ. A summons must, in any case, be served fifteen days before the first day of the term of court at which it is returnable ; but a service at any time within the fifteen days will be good for the term next succeeding that at which it is regularly returnable.

Capias.—This writ lies against the *body* of the debtor, and is issued only upon the plaintiff, or some person for him, making and filing with the declaration on which the suit is founded an affidavit, setting forth that the plaintiff has a subsisting and unsatisfied cause of action against the defendant,—on what account it accrued,—and that the defendant is about to remove out of this state,—or is not a resident of this state,—or that the plaintiff is or will be in danger of losing his demand, unless the *capias* be allowed, and the defendant held to bail. Where the amount of the plaintiff's demand is liquidated, it must be specified in the affidavit ; and in all cases not founded on contract, or not liquidated, the facts and circumstances upon which the demand is based must be stated in the affidavit, so as to enable the court or officer to determine the amount of bail which ought to be required of the defendant. When the affidavit states, as the ground for obtaining a *capias*, that the defendant is about to remove out of, or is not a resident of this state, it is conclusive as to the fact : but the simple statement that the plaintiff is or will be in danger of losing his demand unless a *capias* be allowed and the defendant held to bail, is not so regarded ; and the law requires the person making the affidavit, when he takes that ground, *to state the particular facts and circumstances from which the danger is inferred*, and the issuing of the *capias* depends upon whether the court or officer is satisfied from the facts stated that it ought to issue.

When the defendant is arrested under the *capias*, he can be discharged only, either, by placing himself on the prison limits ; by taking the benefit of the insolvent laws ; or by giving bail. The prison bounds are fixed by the county court, and cannot exceed the area of one half mile square, and must include the jail. The individual putting himself upon the bounds must give a bond to the sheriff, for the use of the plaintiff, with two sufficient securities, in twice the sum demanded, conditioned that he will not pass over the bounds before he is discharged by due course of law. No person can, however, remain in the prison bounds for a longer time than one year.

The provisions of the insolvent laws will be noticed under a separate head.

A person arrested under a *capias* is discharged from arrest upon his entering into recognizance to the plaintiff, before the officer charged with the execution of the writ, with sufficient securities, in a sum equal to that which the clerk or court directed ; conditioned that if judgment be given against him in the suit, he will pay the amount of the recovery, or surrender himself in execution, or that the securities will do it for him.

Attachment.—This writ lies against the debtor's property, and contains,

in addition to the attachment clause, a summons. It can be obtained only in the following cases :

First—Where the debtor is not a resident of, nor residing within, this state ; or,

Second—Where he conceals himself, or absents himself, or has absconded from his usual place of abode in this state, so that the ordinary process of law cannot be served upon him ; or,

Third—Where he is about to remove his property or effects out of this state, so as to defraud, hinder, or delay his creditors ; or,

Fourth—Where he has fraudulently conveyed, assigned, removed, concealed, or disposed of, or is about to convey, assign, remove, or dispose of any of his property or effects so as to defraud, hinder, or delay his creditors ; or,

Fifth—Where the debt was contracted out of this state, and the debtor has absconded, or secretly removed his property or effects to this state, with intent to defraud, defeat, hinder, or delay his creditors.

In order to obtain an attachment, there must be filed with the declaration an affidavit of the plaintiff, or some person for him, stating that the defendant is justly indebted to the plaintiff, after allowing all just credits and set-offs, in a sum (to be specified,) and on what account ; and, also, that the affiant has good reason to believe, and does believe, the existence of one or more of the facts, which, as above stated, would entitle the plaintiff to sue by attachment.

As the grounds for obtaining an attachment are extended, and the action of the writ very summary, the law has provided safeguards against its unjust use ; so that the *honest* debtor need have no apprehensions. The plaintiff, or some one for him, is required, before the attachment issues, to file with the declaration a bond, with sufficient security, resident householders in the county where the suit is brought, to be approved by the clerk, in double the amount of the debt sworn to, conditioned that the plaintiff shall prosecute his action without delay and with effect, and shall pay all damages which may accrue to the defendant or any garnishee, by reason of the attachment or any process or proceeding in the suit. The following is the form of the bond :

“ Know all men by these presents, that we, A. B. as principal, and C. D. as security, are held and firmly bound to the state of Missouri, in the sum of _____ dollars, for the payment of which we bind ourselves and our heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents. Sealed with our seals, and dated the ____ day of _____ 18__.

“ The condition of the above obligation is such, that, whereas the said A. B. as plaintiff, is about to institute a suit in the _____ Court, by attachment, against E. F. as defendant, returnable to the next _____ term of said court, in which the amount sworn to is _____ dollars and _____ cents. Now, if the said plaintiff shall prosecute his action, without delay and with effect, and shall pay all damages which may accrue to the defendant or any garnishee, by reason of the attachment, or any process or proceeding in said suit, then this obligation to be void, otherwise to remain in full force.”

It will be seen that the defendant thus has recourse against the plaintiff, in any case where an unjust or malicious use is made of the writ of attachment. In aid of this, and to avoid the evils which might be inflicted by false swearing, in order to obtain an attachment, the defendant is allowed

to deny, by plea, the truth of the affidavit on which the attachment issued. The question raised by this denial is settled by a jury, before that of the indebtedness of the defendant is tried. If the jury find that the affidavit, when made, was true, the case proceeds; if, on the other hand, they find it not true, the suit is dismissed, at the plaintiff's cost, and the defendant has his remedy on the plaintiff's bond for damages.

JUDGMENTS.

The judgments of the circuit and county courts are liens on the real estate of the person against whom they are rendered, situate in the county for which the court is held. The lien commences on the day of the rendition of the judgment, and continues for three years, subject to be revived by *scire facias*. The sale of lands under a junior judgment passes the title of the defendant, subject to the lien of all prior judgments or decrees then in force.

EXECUTIONS.

These are of two kinds,—against the property of the defendant, and against his property and body. The latter are not issued unless specially ordered. They are, from the time of their delivery to the officer to be executed, liens on his slaves, goods, chattels, and shares in stocks, in the county in which they are held by the officer.

The following property is exempt from execution when owned by a person who is not the head of a family:

First. Wearing apparel.

Second. The necessary tools and implements of trade of any mechanic, whilst carrying on his trade.

The following property, when owned by the head of a family, is exempt:

First. One work-horse, mule, or yoke of oxen, not exceeding the value of forty dollars; one cow and calf, one plough, one axe, one hoe, and one set of plough gears.

Second. The spinning wheels and cards, one loom and apparatus, necessary for manufacturing cloth in a private family.

Third. All the spun yarn, thread, and cloth, manufactured for family use.

Fourth. Any quantity of hemp, flax, and wool, not exceeding twenty-five pounds of each.

Fifth. All wearing apparel of the family, two beds, with the usual bedding, and such other household and kitchen furniture, not exceeding the value of twenty-five dollars, as may be necessary for the family, agreeably to an inventory thereof, to be returned on oath, with the execution, by the officer whose duty it may be to levy the same.

Sixth. The necessary tools and implements of trade of any mechanic, while carrying on his trade.

Seventh. All arms and military equipments required by law to be kept.

Eighth. All such provisions as may be on hand for family use, not exceeding twenty-five dollars in value.

DEMANDS AGAINST ESTATES.

As before remarked, demands against the estates of deceased persons, are presented before the county courts. As they are allowed, they are classed in seven classes, as follows:

First. Funeral expenses.

Second. Expenses of the last sickness, wages of servants, and demands for medicine and medical attendance during the last sickness of the deceased.

Third. Debts due to the state.

Fourth. Judgments rendered against the deceased.

Fifth. All demands, without regard to quality, which shall be legally exhibited for allowance against the estate, within *one* year after granting the first letters on the estate.

Sixth. All such demands, thus exhibited, after the expiration of *one* year, and within *two* years after letters are granted.

Seventh. All such demands, thus exhibited, after the expiration of *two* years, and within *three* years after the grant of such letters.

In paying demands against estates, the administrator must commence with the first class, paying all demands in that class, before he proceeds to the next, and so on down ; so that no part of any demand is paid until all in previous classes are satisfied.

Every person presenting a demand against an estate, must either appear in the court, and make, or must attach to his demand, an affidavit, that, to the best of his knowledge and belief, he has given credit to the estate of the deceased for all payments and off-sets to which it is entitled, on the demand exhibited, and that the balance claimed is justly due. This affidavit will *not be any evidence of the claimant's demand*, but it is, nevertheless, indispensable ; and no claim, unaccompanied by it, can be allowed against an estate.

STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.

The only provisions of this act, to which it is considered necessary to advert here, are those which affect mercantile transactions. Those provisions are as follows :

All actions of debt founded on any writing, whether sealed or unsealed, and all actions of assumpsit founded on any writing for the direct payment of money, must be commenced within *ten* years after the cause of such action accrued, and not after. All actions of debt founded on any contract or liability other than a writing, and which are not brought upon any judgment or decree of any court, and all actions of assumpsit not otherwise specially limited, must be commenced within *five* years after the cause of action accrued. All actions on open accounts for goods, wares, and merchandise sold and delivered, and all actions for any article in a store account, must be commenced within *two* years after the cause of action accrued. If any person entitled to bring any of these actions, be, at the time the cause of action accrued, either within the age of twenty-one ; or insane ; or imprisoned on a criminal charge, or in execution under a sentence of a criminal court, for a less term than his natural life ; or a married woman ; such person shall be at liberty to bring such action within the respective times, after such disability is removed.

The statute does not run in favor of a person out of this state, until his return into the state ; and if a person depart from and reside out of the state, the time of his absence shall not be taken as any part of the time limited for the commencement of the action. If a person by absconding or concealing himself, or by any other improper act of his own, prevent the commencement of any action, such action may be commenced within

the time limited after the time that the commencement of it shall have ceased to be so prevented.

INSOLVENCY.

Any debtor imprisoned, or liable to be imprisoned, for debt, may make application to any judge of the supreme court, or judge of the circuit court, or justice or clerk of the county court of the county in which he may be, offering to deliver, to the use of his creditors, all his property, (wearing apparel for himself and family excepted,) and praying to be permitted to take the benefit of the act for the relief of insolvent debtors. He must annex to and deliver with his petition to the officer to whom it is presented, a schedule containing—

First—A full and true account of all his creditors.

Second—The place of residence of each creditor, if known to the debtor, and if not, the fact to be stated.

Third—The sum owing to each creditor, and the nature of each debt or demand, whether arising on written security, on account, or otherwise.

Fourth—The true cause and consideration of indebtedness in each case, and the place where the indebtedness accrued.

Fifth—A statement of any existing judgment, mortgage, or collateral or other security for the payment of any such debt.

Sixth—A full and true inventory of all the estate, real, personal, and mixed, in law and equity, of the debtor; of the incumbrances existing thereon, and of all the books, vouchers, and securities relating thereto.

The petitioning debtor, upon making oath that the account of his creditors and the inventory of his estate which are annexed to his petition are in all respects just and true; that he has not at any time, or in any manner whatsoever, disposed of or made over any part of his estate for the future benefit of himself, or his family, or in order to defraud any of his creditors; that he has in no instance credited or acknowledged a debt for a greater sum than he honestly and truly owed; and that he has not paid, secured to be paid, or in any way compounded with any of his creditors, with a view fraudulently to take the benefit of the insolvent act; and complying with certain provisions of the law; receives from the officer to whom he applies a discharge from arrest and imprisonment, until the end of the term of the circuit court next to be holden in the county in which the discharge is given, after the expiration of six weeks from the date of the order of discharge. The debtor must then publish in a newspaper for four weeks a notice that he intends to apply to the circuit court of the county in which he is discharged, for a final hearing and discharge. At the time set in the notice, if no opposition is offered, he is finally discharged.

CONVEYANCES.

All instruments of writing, conveying, or affecting real estate situate in this state, executed *out of the state*, must be acknowledged or proved before some court of the United States, or of a state, or territory, having a seal, or the clerk of any such court. It is in all cases necessary that the grantor should be *personally known* to the tribunal or officer taking his acknowledgment, (or, if the court be composed of several judges, to *one* of them,) or should be proven to be the same person described in the conveyance, by *two* credible witnesses. The following forms, embracing cases of most usual occurrence, should be accurately followed.

Acknowledgment by grantor alone.

State of ——— }
 County of ——— } ss. Be it remembered, that on this ——— day of ———..
 before the ——— court of ——— in the county and state aforesaid, (or before
 me ——— clerk of the ——— court of ——— in the county and state afore-
 said,) came A. B., who is personally known to the court (or to me) or (is
 proved by the testimony of C. D. and E. F. two credible witnesses, ex-
 amined on oath,) to be the same person whose name is subscribed to the
 foregoing instrument of writing as a party thereto, and acknowledged the
 same to be his act and deed for the purposes therein mentioned.

[L.S.] In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and the seal
 of said court the day and year in this behalf above written.

A. B., Clerk.

Acknowledgment by grantor and wife, with relinquishment of dower.

“State of ——— }
 County of ——— } ss. Be it remembered, that on this ——— day of ———,
 before (as above) came A. B. and C. B. his wife, who are both personally
 known (or as above) to be the same persons whose names are subscribed
 to the foregoing instrument as parties thereto, and severally acknowledged
 the same to be their act and deed for the purposes therein mentioned.
 She, the said C. B., having been made acquainted with the contents of
 said conveyance, acknowledged, on an examination apart from her said hus-
 band, that she executed the said conveyance, and relinquishes her dower
 in the real estate therein mentioned, freely and without compulsion or un-
 due influence of her said husband. In witness whereof, &c.”

Real estate belonging to the wife can be conveyed by deed executed by
 herself and her husband, and duly acknowledged. The acknowledgment
 in such case is the same as the second form given above, except that the
 words, “*and relinquishes her dower in the real estate therein mentioned,*”
 must be omitted. This acknowledgment must be taken *before a court* ;
 if taken before a clerk, it will not answer.

A power of attorney for the execution of a deed conveying or affecting
 land, must be acknowledged or proved in the same manner as the deed
 itself would be, if executed by the party.

ASSIGNMENTS.

Until within the past year, assignments which required the creditor to
 become a party and sign a release within a given time, before he could re-
 ceive any benefit under them, were considered in this state to be good.
 In May last, however, the supreme court, after full argument and a labored
 investigation of the whole subject, declared such assignments to be void
 against attaching creditors.

AFFIDAVITS.

Affidavits, made out of this state, to be used in any of its courts, must
 be subscribed by the affiant, and sworn to before a judge of a court of
 record, whose official character must be attested by a certificate under the
 hand of the clerk and the seal of the court.

ART. VI.—THE SUFFOLK BANK SYSTEM.

WE will briefly state its *character*, and then also briefly shows its *operation*, which, we believe, is beneficial both to the banks and to the community at large.

1. *Its character*.—In behalf of an association of banks in Boston, including all reputed to be sound, the Suffolk Bank receives, at par, the bills of all the banks of New England, on the following conditions, to wit: Each bank shall deposit, in specie, in the Suffolk Bank, a certain sum, on which no interest shall be allowed, which shall remain during the arrangement, and before drawing out which, fifteen days notice shall be given.

The banks shall keep in deposit at the Suffolk Bank, a sum sufficient to meet so much of their circulation as may be redeemed by the Suffolk; or, in technical language, they “shall keep their account good;” and interest shall be calculated, for each day, on whatever balance there may be against the banks; by which mode the Suffolk receives, on their accounts, a rate of interest which is more than six, perhaps seven or eight per cent per annum: and if a bank neglects to keep its account good, it shall be liable, at any moment, to be stricken off.

2. *Its operation*.—Boston, being the centre of business in the New England states, may claim to control the exchanges within these states. The balance of trade, too, between Boston and other places in New England, is unquestionably in favor of Boston. It will be seen, then, that Boston, on the general scale, is not obliged to make remittances to other parts of the states, but that, on the contrary, they must make their remittances to Boston. It follows, therefore, that, while Boston bills are at par all over New England, the bills of other places must be at a discount in Boston, equal, at least, to the expense incurred in getting the bills to the banks whence they are issued for specie or its equivalent, and bringing the funds back to Boston.

The question now presents itself: *Is the difference of exchange between Boston and other places in New England less than the expense attending the arrangement with the Suffolk Bank?* To settle this question, an appeal should be made to facts. A bank with a capital of \$100,000, for instance, is required to deposit in the Suffolk Bank the sum of \$3,000, the interest on which, at six per cent per annum, is \$180. By a law of Maine—and the law in this respect is pretty uniform in all the New England states—such a bank may put in circulation its own bills to the amount of seventy-five per centum of its capital stock. The average circulation of sound banks, however, having a capital of \$100,000, does not exceed \$50,000, and the average redemption by the Suffolk Bank is about \$10,000 a month, or \$120,000 a year. The bank is at the expense and risk of remitting this sum of 120,000 every year in order to redeem its circulation; which expense and risk may be stated at one quarter of one per centum, or the sum of \$300. Other expenses, incidental to the arrangement, are, perhaps, \$120 more; making the whole annual expense of redeeming at the Suffolk Bank, to a bank with a capital of \$100,000, the sum of \$600. On the other hand, the *average* rate of exchange, between Boston and other places in New England, being not less than one half of one per cent, will give on \$120,000, the precise sum of \$600; which amount, in one shape or another, must be borne by the bank not redeeming at the Suf-

folk Bank. That it must be borne by the bank may be illustrated in this way: You live in Augusta, for example, and intend to go to Boston to buy goods. You want \$2,000. You apply for a discount. The bank pays out its own bills. These bills being at a discount in Boston, you will not carry them there and suffer a loss of \$10; so you present them at the bank for Boston bills, or specie; and this shows that a bank must be prepared for such drafts, by keeping a surplus quantity of specie, or Boston funds, constantly on hand. So that, as the question now stands, there is *no loss* to the bank redeeming at Boston. But the bank is greatly benefited by the arrangement, in its increased circulation, and in not being compelled to keep in its vaults so large an amount of specie as it otherwise would; for the fact of its bills being current in Boston inspires confidence in the soundness of the bank, and its bills are consequently less liable to be presented for specie by their holders.

In regard to the public, the system is safer than redemption at home, as it prevents an undue expansion of issues. A bank disposed to be fraudulent may, indeed, enlarge its issues, and then fail, leaving the public to suffer, whether redeeming at the Suffolk Bank or not; so that it must be admitted, the system furnishes little or no security against fraud. But, with no design to defraud the public, a bank may, nevertheless, very much increase its circulation contrary to good judgment and sound policy; and, while receiving no immediate check from the holders of bills who live at remote distances from the bank, and hold the bills in small parcels, it may yet jeopardize its own interest as well as that of the public. The sum of the matter seems to be this, that, while the expense of redeeming at Boston is no greater than it would be at the counters of the several banks, the safety to the public is greatly increased, and the trouble of looking into the condition of the banks by the people themselves, almost entirely avoided by the adoption of the Suffolk Bank system.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.*

United States District Court.—Mass. District.—Frederick Tudor vs. Ship Eagle and owners.—This was a libel against the ship *Eagle*, for the value of a cargo of ice shipped on board of her by libellant, in January, 1840, and valued in the bills of lading at between two and three thousand dollars, and destined to the island of Jamaica. It appeared from the evidence that within twenty-four hours after leaving port, the ship sprung a leak, which continued to increase, until, for the purpose of lightening her and getting at the leak, a portion of the cargo was thrown overboard. But the leak still continuing, the ship was put away for Bermuda, where she arrived in about seven days from the time of her departure; and it being impossible to store the ice, or otherwise preserve it, while she underwent repairs, the residue of it was thrown overboard.

In behalf of the libellant, it was contended that there is always an implied warranty on the part of the owners that the vessel is tight, stanch, and seaworthy, and fit for the voyage; and when, without any extraordinary occur-

* Reported for the Merchants' Magazine, by A. C. Spooner, Esq., Counsellor at Law, Boston, Mass.

rence, she springs a leak immediately after leaving port, it is for the owner to prove her seaworthiness at the inception of the voyage. The defendant maintained that the leak was caused by stress of weather such as might have produced the consequences proved, even to a seaworthy vessel.

It appeared that the *Eagle* was an eastern built vessel and fifteen years old; and the opinion of experts was given that the log-book did not show any remarkable stress of weather, such as ought not to have been expected at the season of the year in which the voyage was undertaken.

Judge Davis sustained the positions taken by the libellant, and decided that the vessel was unseaworthy at the commencement of the voyage, and the libellant was entitled to recover the value of the cargo: and a decree was entered accordingly.

Fairchild et al. vs. Ship Aurelius.—This was a libel for seamen's wages. The libellant Fairchild was second mate, and the other libellant steward of the ship on a voyage from Richmond to Havre, and a final *port of discharge in the United States*. The ship performed her voyage to Havre, and there cleared for Richmond, Va., but experiencing heavy weather, and having carried away her mainmast, fore and mizzen topmasts, and sustained other damages, put away for Boston, where she arrived on the ninth of June, and the crew all left.

The defence was, that the voyage was not terminated, this being a *port of distress* merely, and not a port of discharge; and that a libel would not lie until the libellants had performed the contract on their part. The court sustained these positions, held that the libel was premature, and ordered it to be dismissed.

RECENT DECISIONS OF THE SUPREME COURT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

LETTER OF CREDIT—LEX LOCI CONTRACTUS.

D. Carnegie et al. vs. Morrison, Cryder, & Co.—This was an action brought to recover damages for the non-acceptance of bills drawn by the plaintiffs on the defendants pursuant to the following letter of credit:

“*Boston, March 4, 1837.*”

MESSRS. MORRISON, CRYDER, AND CO., *London.*

Mr. John Bradford, of this city, having requested that a credit may be opened with you for his account in favor of Messrs. D. Carnegie & Co., of Gottenburg, for three thousand pounds sterling, I have assured him that the same will be accorded by you to that amount on the usual terms and conditions.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

For £3000.

FRANCIS J. OLIVER.”

Chief-justice Shaw, delivering the opinion of the court, said, it was admitted that Mr. Oliver was the general and authorized agent of the defendants, residing in Massachusetts, and that the letter of credit was given for valuable consideration. Upon this letter of credit the action must be maintained, if at all. The questions then were—1st, whether this letter amounted to a contract, and between whom, and who might avail themselves of it, and against whom; and 2d, by what law its terms were to be construed—that of Massachusetts or that of England. And the court were of opinion that the letter did amount to a contract; and having been made in Massachusetts, by the authorized agent of the defendants here, who assured Mr. Bradford that a credit for £3000 would be opened by them in favor of the plaintiffs, it was to be construed by the laws of Massachusetts, where it was made, and not by those of England, where the defendants reside, or of Sweden, the residence of the plaintiffs.

As to the question, whether the present plaintiffs could maintain an action upon this contract between the agent of the defendants and Mr. Bradford, to which they were not parties, or even privy at the time it was entered into, the court held that the settled law of Massachusetts would establish a priority and imply a promise in favor of the plaintiffs in a case of this nature, the credit having been obtained for their benefit; as in a case where money is paid by

A. to B. for the use of C., C. may maintain his action against B. They therefore ordered judgment to be entered for the plaintiffs, for the amount of the letter of credit and interest.

MARINE INSURANCE.—JETTISON OF GOODS CARRIED ON DECK.

In the Court of Queen's Bench, London, Dec. 19, 1840. *Milward vs. Hibbert*.—This was an action brought upon a time policy of assurance, effected upon the Kilkenny steamer, from November 28th, 1837, to November 28th, 1838. This vessel traded between Waterford and London, and her cargoes consisted chiefly of cattle and pigs, the latter of which were always stowed on deck, the vessel having been built and fitted for that express purpose. On one of her trips, in 1838, she met with very boisterous weather, and became in great danger. The captain, in order to save her, found it necessary to throw overboard her deck cargo, consisting of upwards of 700 pigs. The owner of these pigs then proceeded against the present plaintiff, who was the owner of the vessel, to recover contribution for the average loss, in the Court of Exchequer, in Ireland; and the plaintiff brought the present action against the underwriters, to recover the sum which he had been compelled to make to the owner of the pigs. The defendant pleaded, first, that the pigs were not thrown overboard; second, that where goods on deck were thrown overboard they were not subject to a general average; and, thirdly, that, by the custom of London, the underwriters were not liable to the loss of a deck cargo, unless it was specially insured. The Attorney-general for the defendant admitted, that the first issue, as to the pigs having been thrown overboard, must be found for the plaintiff. Sir William Follett, for the plaintiff, did not dispute that this had been the custom with reference to sailing vessels, and that underwriters were not liable to contribute upon a general average. Where a part of a cargo was thrown overboard, the owner of the ship was bound to contribute, and he could recover his contribution from the underwriters upon the vessel. In this instance, therefore, the plaintiff, having been compelled to make contribution, now called upon the defendants to indemnify him; if the underwriters were not liable, the owner of the ship was not liable, but the Court of Exchequer in Ireland had decided that he was liable. This was the case of a steam vessel, and it was the usage on steam vessels, to stow the live-stock on deck. The custom, therefore, applying to sailing vessels did not apply to steamers. Lord Denman, in summing up, observed, that it was denied that the captain had thrown the pigs overboard for the preservation of the ship. The question for the jury was, whether the custom set up by the defendant did in fact exist; but, if they considered the usage of a particular trade to stow on deck was proved, that would form an exception to the custom. If such a usage existed, the underwriters were bound to know it.

ACTION ON THE BILL OF LADING; CUSTOM OF RUSSIA.

In the English Court of Exchequer, an action was recently brought by *Dumas vs. Harland*, for not accepting 1,600 quarters of foreign wheat, alleged by the plaintiff to have been sold by him to the defendant in August last. From the evidence of Mr. Westhorpe, a broker, it appeared that the wheat in question being expected by him to arrive shortly from Taganrog, a Russian port in the Black Sea, he sold the same to the plaintiff for his correspondents, and that he shortly afterward resold the same to the defendant for a Mr. Gorsen, on the 19th of August, at the rate of 50s. per quarter, in the presence of Mr. Parsall, another broker of the Corn-Exchange. On the part of the defendant it was contended as an excuse for the non-acceptance of the wheat on its arrival, that there had been a misrepresentation on the part of Mr. Westhorpe as to the date of the bill of lading, by reason of which he had misled the defendant into a belief that that document was dated the 3d of July according to the new style, whereas in truth, as was the custom of Russia, the date was of the old style, and was, in fact, the "14th of July," by which a material difference arose in the

value of wheat intended for importation into England. Under these circumstances, the main struggle to-day was between the evidence of Mr. Westhorpe for the plaintiff, and that of Messrs. Gorsen and Parsall for the defendant, the former denying that he had done more than say, that he believed or thought that the date of the bill of lading was according to the new style, and positively asserting that he had never guarantied the defendant to that effect; while, on the other hand, the defendant's witnesses, admitting much that Mr. Westhorpe had said, added thereto that particular inquiries were made as to the real date, and that furthermore that gentleman had attached to the sold note a memorandum to the effect that "the bill of lading was dated the 3d of July, 1840," before the contract had been perfected by the interchange of the bought and sold notes between the brokers. This statement, however, Mr. Westhorpe met by saying that the memorandum in question was not written by him till after the delivery of the notes, and was not intended by him to be a part of the contract, or to operate in any way as a guarantee of the fact that the date was according to the English computation, but simply of the fact that the date was so expressed in the bill of lading. The jury found for the plaintiff for the full amount claimed, which was upwards of £3,000.

DAMAGES ON PROTESTED BILLS OF EXCHANGE.*

MAINE.—Payable out of the state, and in New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut or New York, 3 per cent; in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia or District of Columbia, 5 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina or Georgia, 6 per cent; at any other place in the United States or Territories, 9 per cent; at any place out of the United States or Territories, 10 per cent; payable within the state, at not less than 75 miles distance, in sums of \$100 and over, 1 per cent.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—[In this state there is no existing statute regulation on the subject. The usual practice has been to charge the rate of damages existing at the point where the bill was payable.]

VERMONT.—[No statute regulation on this subject exists in this state. The practice has been similar to that in New Hampshire.]

MASSACHUSETTS.—Payable out of the United States, except beyond the Cape of Good Hope, 5 per cent; beyond the Cape, 20 per cent; in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, 2 per cent; in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, 3 per cent; in Virginia, District of Columbia, Georgia, and North and South Carolina, 4 per cent; elsewhere in the United States or Territories, 5 per cent. Within the state, not less than 75 miles distant, in sums not less than \$100, one per cent.

RHODE ISLAND.—Payable without the United States, 10 per cent; within the United States, and out of Rhode Island, 5 per cent.

CONNECTICUT.—Payable in the city of New York, 2 per cent; in New Hampshire, Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, (out of the city,) New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or District of Columbia, 3 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, or Ohio, 5 per cent; in any other State or Territory, 8 per cent.

NEW YORK.—Payable in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or District of Columbia, 3 per cent; in North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent; at any other place in the United States, or on this continent north of the equator, or the West Indies, or elsewhere in the West Atlantic Ocean, 10 per cent; in Europe, 10 per cent.

* As regulated by the laws of the different states.

NEW JERSEY.—[There are no statute regulations on this subject in New Jersey.]

PENNSYLVANIA.—Payable out of this state, in the United States or Territories, except Louisiana, 5 per cent; in Louisiana, or any other state in North America, or the Islands thereof, except the Northwest coast of America and Mexico, or in any of the West India or Bahama Islands, 10 per cent; in Madeira, the Canaries, the Azores, the Cape de Verds, the Spanish Main or Mexico, 15 per cent; in any place in Europe or the islands thereof, 20 per cent; at any other place in the world, 25 per cent.

DELAWARE.—Payable at any place within the United States or Territories, out of Delaware, 5 per cent; at any place in Europe, 20 per cent.

MARYLAND.—Payable without the state, and at any place in the United States, or Territories thereof, 8 per cent; in any foreign country, 15 per cent.

VIRGINIA.—Payable out of the state, at any place within the United States or Territories, 3 per cent; in any foreign country, 15 per cent.

NORTH CAROLINA.—Payable in any of the United States except Louisiana, 6 per cent; at any other place in North America, on the Northwest Coast, in the West Indies or Bahama Islands, 10 per cent; in Madeira, the Canaries, the Azores, Cape de Verds, or other place in Europe or South America, 15 per cent; in any other part of the world, 20 per cent.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Payable within the United States at any place out of South Carolina, 10 per cent; in any other part of North America, or the West India Islands, 12½ per cent; in any other part of the world, 15 per cent.

GEORGIA.—Payable in any part of the United States or Territories out of Georgia, 5 per cent; at any place without the United States, 10 per cent.

ALABAMA.—Payable out of the state, and at any place within the United States or Territories, 10 per cent; in any place beyond the United States, 20 per cent.

MISSISSIPPI.—Payable at any place out of the state, within the United States, 5 per cent; at any place out of the United States or Territories, 10 per cent.

LOUISIANA.—Payable at any place out of the state, within the United States or Territories, 5 per cent; at any place without the United States, 10 per cent.

TENNESSEE.—Payable without the state at any place in the United States or Territories, 3 per cent; in any other place in North America, on the Gulf of Mexico, or West India Islands, 15 per cent; in other parts of the world, 20 per cent.

KENTUCKY.—On foreign bills, 10 per cent damages are allowed. On inland bills, damages are governed by the law of the place.

OHIO.—Payable at any place without the United States, 12 per cent; within the United States at any place out of Ohio, 6 per cent.

INDIANA.—Payable at any place without the United States, 10 per cent; at any place within the United States out of Indiana, 5 per cent. Drawer or endorser not liable for damages, if paid at maturity, with costs.

ILLINOIS.—Payable at any place without the United States, 10 per cent; at any point within the United States, and out of Illinois, 5 per cent.

MISSOURI.—Payable at any place within the state, 4 per cent; out of the state, and within the United States, 10 per cent; at any place out of United States or Territories, 20 per cent.

MICHIGAN.—[No statute regulation has as yet been adopted in this state.]

ARKANSAS.—Payable at any place within the state, 2 per cent; in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, or at any place on the Ohio river, 4 per cent; in any other place in the United States or Territories, 5 per cent; at any place out of the United States, 10 per cent; together with costs and interest at the rate of 10 per cent per annum.

FLORIDA.—Same as the state of Alabama.

WISCONSIN.—Payable at any place without the United States, 20 per cent; out of the Territory, adjoining the same within the United States, 5 per cent; in the United States not adjoining the Territory, 10 per cent.

IOWA.—The same as in the Territory of Wisconsin.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—[The rates established in Maryland and Virginia, are charged on protested bills in the District.]

In Europe, damages on protested bills of exchange, are what will enable the holder to purchase a new bill, at the current rate of exchange, together with interest and all charges, such as protest, postages, and commissions.

There is no general law in the United States on the subject; and damages are regulated by statute in the different states, varying in some instances widely, as will be seen by the preceding table.

The amount due and damages are usually calculated after the rate of exchange where the bill is returned, and not on the face of it; unless the contents of the bill are expressed in federal money, in which case the damages are ascertained without reference to the rate of exchange.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*A Treatise on the Rights and Duties of Merchant Seamen, according to the general maritime law, and the statutes of the United States.* By **GEORGE TICKNOR CURTIS**, of the Boston bar. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1841.

The author of this treatise is already favorable known to the profession of the law, by a thorough, accurate, and well-arranged Admiralty Digest, an indispensable work in the library of every practitioner in a commercial city, and by a collection of neat forms in conveyancing. The present work is divided into five parts. The first part, subdivided into five chapters, treats of the professional and national character of merchant seamen, of the general nature of the mariner's contract, the parties to it, its various forms, with a full examination into the forms and construction of shipping articles. The second part, consisting of five chapters, treats of the respective office and authority of the master and mate in relation to the crew and passengers, of the law regulating the subsistence of mariners, and the care of them in sickness, of offences against the discipline and economy of the ship, and the public law, and of the discharge of seamen. The third part, divided into four chapters, is devoted to an examination of the master's relation to the vessel and its owners, the cargo and the freight, and to the subject of his wages, disbursements, and advances. The fourth part, consisting of three chapters, is occupied with the subject of wages, and especially of the time within which their payment may be demanded and enforced, of the extent to which they are affected by the various casualties and interruptions to which a voyage is liable, and of the principles of forfeiture applicable to them. The fifth part, containing three chapters, is occupied with a discussion of the rights and remedies of mariners for their wages, and for damages in personal torts, and of the admiralty and common law jurisdiction in mariners' cases. An appendix is added, containing some curious and copious extracts from the records of the vice admiralty court for the province of Massachusetts Bay, various forms of shipping articles, and the statutes of the United States relating to ships, navigation, and seamen.

From the above abstract, it will be seen how extensive a range of subjects has been embraced by Mr. Curtis, and with what judiciousness he has arranged and disposed of his materials. The manner in which he has executed the details of his work leaves nothing to be desired. His ample outline has been filled up with great fulness and great accuracy. The capacious store of English and American learning, the decisions of the various courts, and the enactments of legislatures, have been examined, for authorities and illustrations, with minute industry and unfailing sagacity. Nor has the author confined himself within the pale of the English tongue, notwithstanding the high rank of those who speak it, in maritime affairs, nor has he disdained to make use of the rich stores

of learning and good sense, found in the codes, enactments, and treatises of continental Europe. The laws of Oleron, of Rhodes, and Wisburg, the Consolato del Mare, the French Ordinances, the writings of Pothier and Valin, are not less familiar to him than the judgments of Lord Stowell and Mr. Justice Story, and the work of Lord Tenterden. We are not aware of any source of information which has escaped our author's diligent researches. He has presented the result of his careful investigations in a luminous, succinct, and accurate shape, which gives to each subject its due prominence and fair proportion. Nor is his work a mere digest of adjudged cases. He has fairly applied his mind to his task. He has evidently reflected carefully upon the subjects which came under his consideration, and sought to discover the principle upon which the cases are made to rest; and in doubtful questions, has not hesitated to state frankly his own opinion and the reasons upon which it is founded. The style of the work is flowing, easy, and graceful, showing the writer to be a person of general cultivation, and accustomed to literary composition. A pervading tone of good sense and correct feeling runs through it, giving indication that the author has not studied the subject exclusively in the solitude of his office, but has been practically acquainted with it, and has seen how the system works in courts and in every-day life. In short, he has evidently practised maritime law, as well as studied it.

To the legal profession this work is a valuable gift. It supersedes and renders comparatively useless other works upon the same subject, and contains all that the practitioner can be likely to want. To every lawyer who lives within the region embraced by the ebb and flow of the sea, we should consider it nothing less than indispensable. And notwithstanding its stores of legal learning, it is written in so plain and perspicuous a style, that there is no part of it which would not be perfectly intelligible to a non-professional reader, and on this account it may be recommended to the intelligent merchant and shipmaster, as an excellent manual for reference and consultation. We cannot dismiss the work without a word of praise for its beautiful exterior. The type and paper are of the very best quality, and its whole appearance reflects the highest credit upon the taste and enterprise of the publishers.

2—*Lectures on the History of Literature, ancient and modern, from the German* of FREDERICK SCHLEGEL. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 12mo. pp. 392.

The present age is characterized not more by the increased regard paid to the study of literature, than it is by the improved systems devised for its successful cultivation. Formerly we had to wade through ponderous tomes of learned lore, as ill-digested as they were cumbrous, devolving on the student the laborious task of extracting from the accumulated heaps whatever might be found to profit or to please. By our modern improved methods, however, we are spared this labor, and in nearly every department of literature and science, we have ready to our hand, all the vast stores of knowledge, so admirably arranged as to be available for immediate use. The benefits arising from this labor-saving process are indeed a desideratum for those engaged in commercial pursuits, who have to economize time; and it must be equally acceptable to the general student, in facilitating reference and in imparting to it more distinct and permanent impressions. One of the most valuable works of this class is the above, which, as a synoptical work on the subject of which it treats, is unquestionably to be regarded as one of the most valuable and complete. It is needless to bespeak for a work from the pen of Schlegel, the favorable opinions of the reading community; and assuredly no person of literary taste can remain insensible to its *intrinsic* value. The translation, which is attributed to the accomplished pen of J. G. Lockhart, Esq., is indeed a master-piece, and well worthy of his scholastic reputation. It is only necessary to add, that to this American edition is appended an original Index, which of course imparts to the work additional value. The typographical part of the work is creditable to the taste and enterprise of the publishers.

- 3.—*The Works of William E. Channing, D. D.* First complete American edition, with an Introduction. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1841. 5 vols. 12mo.

Little need be said at this day to recommend to public notice the works of this distinguished writer. One who already stands so high as to be placed by foreign critics at the head of American authors; whose writings, despite of all sectarian prejudices, are found on the tables and shelves of prelates and preachers, at home and abroad, of very different theological views from his own; and who is daily exercising, through those writings, a vast influence upon the minds of all who willingly or unwillingly find themselves made to think; such an one needs no commendation of ours. The character of our journal, too, forbids an extended review of works of this class especially. But this beautiful edition, presenting a complete series of Dr. Channing's writings, revised and edited by himself, and prefaced by an original introduction from his own pen, demands of us a brief notice. We wish to congratulate the lovers of free and manly thought, of a rich, strong, and vigorous style, pure from all barbarous admixture of German, or any other affectation, of a noble and high-souled hopefulness for his race breathing itself on every page, that at the most moderate charge these volumes are offered them. We were almost ready to say that the books are too cheap, and we happen to know that the trade generally think so; but we check ourselves from any complaint on that score, inasmuch as there is the better prospect that they will be the more extensively bought and read. Some of Dr. C.'s writings have already become classic in our own language; and his more recent ones show no diminution of power. It is the intention of the publishers, whenever more are produced by him sufficient to fill another volume, to issue it in exact conformity with this edition. We sincerely hope that the necessity for so doing will early arise. We know nothing more desirable in our national literature, than the fullest contributions of minds of this high order; and no writings better calculated than these, very few so well, to elevate the tone of public feeling, and public and private morals, and make men appreciate and feel their obligations and duties to God and their fellow-men, to themselves and society, to their country and the world. We have sometimes smiled at hearing it said that Dr. C.'s writings were ephemeral, and his fame on the wane. The very contrary of this is true. He speaks too powerfully to the universal heart of man to have it otherwise. The time to measure his influence or his fame, is not yet, and the calm and undisturbed manner in which he holds on his course, taking and noting his observations, uttering his predictions, urging great and universal principles, and insisting on the great destinies of man, which he confidently declares will be wrought out and accomplished, is earnest enough that he feels, and that he has a response in the bosoms of the millions to whom he does, and is to speak.

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- 4.—*Masterman Ready; or the Wreck of the Pacific.* Written for Young People. By Captain MARRYATT. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841. pp. 186.

An interesting narrative after the manner of Robinson Crusoe. The series will be continued, should this first part meet the approbation of children. In the character of Ready, the author exhibits the practical man, and that of the theoretical in the father of the family. As the work advances, Capt. M. will enter more deeply into the questions which may induce children to think, or by raising their curiosity, stimulate them to seek for information. The moral tendency of the tale is unexceptionable. The present volume forms one of the series of "Appleton's Tales for the People and their Children."

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- 5.—*The Ancient Regime.* By James. 2 vols. 12mo. Harper and Brothers.

In our opinion this is one of James' very best novels; and we are aware that this is saying a great deal, as he has published so many excellent things before. Independent of its interest as a work of fiction, it presents a picture of French manners, under the old *regime*, that is exceedingly striking.

6.—*Life of Paul Jones.* By ALEXANDER SLIDELL MACKENZIE, U. S. N. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1841. 18mo. pp. 260, 308.

It was fortunate for the author of this narrative that Paul Jones, the hero, moved doubtless by the conviction that his actions would be the subject of future interest, was careful in placing on record and preserving every thing that would be of value to the biographer. It will be seen that the materials placed in the hands of the author were sufficiently ample to enable him to prepare a full and complete memoir of the eventful life and actions of the renowned subject. In 1825, Mr. J. H. Sherburn, the registrar of the navy, published a life of Jones, from the documents on file in the government offices, and from a portion of his private papers, to which Mr. Sherburn had access. In 1830, a more elaborate work on the same subject was published at Edinburgh, from the materials furnished by Sherburn, from log-books of Jones's various cruises, and from original papers in possession of his heirs. A third life was published in New York the same year, by Mr. Robert Sands, from the materials used in the Edinburgh work, and subsequently brought to this country by a niece of Paul Jones. These works were in the historical style, and contain a mass of documents not always interesting to the general reader. Mr. Mackenzie has, in the volumes before us, avoided this difficulty, and merely states all the known facts in the life of Jones, in a simple, consecutive form, according to their natural order of succession. Letters, however, of Paul Jones, are occasionally introduced, sufficient to convey to the mind a more distinct idea of his thoughts and feelings than could otherwise be obtained. They are written with clearness, spirit, and vigor. Mr. Mackenzie's style is graceful and scholarly, and the typographical appearance of the volumes is not surpassed by some of the handsomest productions of the British press.

7. *History of the Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Catholic.* By WILLIAM B. H. PRESCOTT. In three volumes, 8vo. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1840.

This great work has received the lasting impress of public approbation, both in our own country and in Europe; and no remark of ours can add or detract from its well established reputation. For profound research, just proportion, and classical purity of style, it exhibits to the world a splendid model of historical composition, which ranks scarcely behind those great historiographers, Hume and Gibbon, without being marred by the defects of principle which are presented by the latter works. It is indeed a relief, amid that barren waste of literary pretension which disfigures our own age, to find a countryman occasionally springing up whose talents are calculated to relieve the sad picture; and here is one, the direct tendency of whose effort is to produce that effect. He has entered upon the subject as a great labor, allowing to himself ample time not only to model his enduring structure upon a noble plan, but to perfect his details in their minutest parts. The historic circumstances belonging to the tract of time which it embraces, are set forth with such transparent beauty, and fulness of marginal references, that we are in doubt which most to admire, the elegance of its composition or that power of labor which has thus successfully completed so arduous a task. The literary value of the work is properly aided by the richness of its mechanical execution and its engraved illustrations; and we cheerfully add our assistance to the wide diffusion of a knowledge of its merits.

8.—*Guy's Elements of Astronomy, and an Abridgment of Keith's New Treatise on the Use of the Globes.* 20th Edition. Philadelphia: Thomas, Cowperthwait & Co. 18mo. pp. 173. 1841.

The part of this work treating on Astronomy is clear, intelligible, and well suited to the comprehension of beginners in this sublime science. It contains a great amount of useful and interesting information, and is well illustrated with appropriate engravings. In truth, we know of no work on this subject which comprises so much in little space as the one before us.

- 9.—*History of the Colonization of the United States*. By GEORGE BANCROFT. Abridged by the author. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 18mo. pp. 332, 335.

Mr. Bancroft has been pronounced from authoritative sources one of the great historical writers of the age. While we defer to that judgment, we would not withhold the expression of our conviction that he is the greatest. His great work now in progress has been carried down through the period of the North American colonization, of which the present volumes are an abridgment for the use of schools. The author, a ripe scholar, has embraced the task as a labor of love, and disregarding that large mass of trash called "history," which loads the shelves of our libraries, he has, with painstaking diligence, consulted original records in print and manuscript, and by a careful comparison of authorities placed the facts which he has recorded upon an impregnable basis. His style is original and highly colored, exhibiting the charm of life-like description mingled with chronological details, and favorably contrasted with those crude efforts of many of our historians whose books are as dry as a proposition of Euclid. It may safely be alleged that the history of the colonization of the United States is now written. Mr. Bancroft has ploughed deep, and reaped a harvest in this section of our history which leaves but little chance for the gleaner. In his larger work he has erected a solid and enduring monument to himself and to his country. The present volumes contain the most important matter of that work, and are embellished with several maps and engravings which illustrate his text. Relieved as he now is from the onerous duties of a public officer, we hope that he may go on and complete the task which, if it shall be finished as it has been commenced, will yield him a wider and more lasting fame, and a deeper gratitude in the hearts of considerate and unprejudiced men, than could be produced by any political elevation.

- 10.—*The Hannahs, or Maternal Influence on Sons*. By ROBERT PHILIP. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 308. 1841.

The present volume, preceded by "The Marthas, or Varieties of Female Piety," the "Lydias, or the Development of Female Character," the "Marys, or the Beauty of Holiness," is the fourth of a series of books from the same pen, of uniform size and price, published by the house named in the titlepage, under the general head of the "Lady's Closet Library." Written as they were by a clergyman of the Presbyterian Church, of reputed piety, they of course possess a religious character, and although it is evidently not the aim of the author to impart to their pages a sectarian spirit, they indicate the particular religious sentiments of the denomination to which he belongs. They are written in an easy, flowing style, and contain matter of an instructive character, well adapted to the taste of a large class of persons of different denominations, who embrace the popular faith as held by those commonly called "evangelical" Christians. The volumes are beautifully printed, as indeed are most of the publications of D. Appleton & Co., who deserve praise for the general improvement they have made in the typographical appearance of the works emanating from their prolific press.

- 11.—*Peter Parley's Universal History on the Basis of Geography. For the Use of Families*. Illustrated by maps and engravings. Two volumes in one. New York: J. A. Hoisington. 16mo. pp. 760. 1841.

This is unquestionably the most comprehensive abridgment of universal history that has yet been published. The idea of embracing in the compass of two little volumes any thing like a tolerable outline of the voluminous facts connected with universal history is certainly preposterous, but Mr. Goodrich has succeeded in bringing together in outline the most remarkable events of ancient and modern times, in a very attractive form, so that his work will create a taste for the study of this interesting and important branch of useful knowledge.

12.—*The Widow Directed to God.* By JOHN ANGELL JAMES. With an Introduction. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1841. 18mo. pp. 205.

The present volume is, we believe, the only one in our language devoted especially to the consolation of the afflicted widow. It is well remarked by the American editor, that few men could, with much hope of success, undertake a task so delicate. Properly to perform it, required not only a warm and generous heart, a clear and discriminating intellect, a practical acquaintance with the laws that govern the human mind, but also, personal experience in similar grief. In all these respects, the gifted author of this volume is eminently qualified. He has not only a mind of simplicity and elegance, but evidently possesses a heart of universal generosity—alive to every appeal of sorrow. The early loss of the wife of his youth, and the rapid though sweetly passing away of his present companion, have served to quicken into life past sorrow, besides opening to his heart new fountains of grief. Whilst, therefore, he hands forth the cup of consolation, he assures the mourner that it has virtue; for he has tasted it, and found its power. There is a subdued and tender spirit breathed into every page and paragraph, and the work is written with elegance and great simplicity of style. We therefore commend it to the attention of all who sorrow for the severance of the nearest and dearest ties of humanity.

13.—*Letters from abroad to Kindred at Home.* By Miss SEDGWICK. 2 vols. 12mo. New York : Harper & Brothers. 1841.

There is a *naïveté*, a freshness and life, about these letters, that is truly charming. The amiable and excellent author forewarns us that we are not to look for any “statistics—any ‘valuable information,’” that is, any thing about stocks, trade, population, politics, *et id omne genus*, and we are glad of it, for any dull collector may gather up these matters; we want the *spiritual*, something that does not smack so much of earth—a delineation of man, not as the slave of his animal wants, but in the higher and purer aspects of his intellectual nature, his sympathies and affections; and this is a picture to be drawn only by such writers as Miss Sedgwick. These few words may suffice to give our readers some idea of the character of the work, but they must buy it and read it for themselves, if they would have an intellectual treat such as they have not enjoyed for many a day.

14.—*Farewell Tales.* By Mrs. HOFLAND, author of *Energy; Moderation; Integrity; Decision; Reflection; Clergyman's Widow; Good Grandmother; Sisters; Merchant's Widow; Stolen Boy; Blind Farmer; Daughter-in-law; Affectionate Brothers; Elizabeth and her Three Beggar Boys, &c.* New York : Dean & Trevett. 18mo. pp. 225.

With this little volume, containing thirteen tales, Mrs. Hofland closes her labors in the department of juvenile literature, and all who have read those named in the catalogue quoted from the preface of the one now before us, will regret to bid her “farewell.” Though highly wrought, they inculcate pure and benevolent sentiments, and are written in an easy, agreeable style. The publishers of this and several other volumes of her writings, are completing the entire series, in uniform size, which will form a very interesting “Girls and Boys’ Library.”

15.—*The Temptation; or Henry Thornton.* By a Minister. Boston : Saxton and Pierce. 18mo. pp. 106. 1841.

The writer of this tale informs us in the preface, that he has attempted nothing more than a plain recital of facts, a portion of which came under his own notice. The narrative illustrates the evils of intemperance, and is designed to guard the unwary youth from the temptation of falling a prey to the vice.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.**TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION****BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AND PORTUGAL.**

A TREATY of commerce and navigation between the United States and Portugal was concluded at Lisbon on the 25th of August, 1840, and the ratifications exchanged at Washington on the 23d of April, 1841. It is based on the principle of perfect reciprocity. The material provisions are as follows:—

ARTICLE I.—There shall be, between the territories of the high contracting parties, a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation. The citizens and subjects of their respective states shall, mutually, have liberty to enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territories of each party, wherever foreign commerce is, or shall be, permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs; and they shall enjoy, to that effect, the same security and protection as natives of the country wherein they reside, on condition of their submitting to the laws and ordinances there prevailing, and particularly to the regulations in force concerning commerce.

ART. II.—Vessels of the United States of America arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal; and, reciprocally, Portuguese vessels arriving, either laden or in ballast, in the ports of the United States of America, shall be treated, on their entrance, during their stay, and at their departure, upon the same footing as national vessels coming from the same place, with respect to the duties of tonnage, lighthouse duties, pilotage, port charges, as well as to the fees and perquisites of public officers, and all other duties and charges, of whatever kind or denomination, levied upon vessels of commerce, in the name or to the profit of the government, the local authorities, or of any public or private establishment whatever.

ART. III.—No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation, into the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America; and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation, into the United States of America, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, than such as are, or shall be payable on the like article, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country.

Nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the importation or exportation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America, or of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, to or from the ports of the said kingdom and possessions of Portugal, or of the said States, which shall not equally extend to all other foreign nations.

Nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries, on the exportation of any articles to the United States of America, or to the kingdom of Portugal, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country.

Provided, however, that nothing contained in this article shall be understood or intended to interfere with the stipulation entered into by the United States of America, for a special equivalent, in regard to French wines, in the convention made by the said States and France, on the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty-one; which stipulation will expire and cease to have effect, in the month of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-two.

ART. IV.—The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties, deduction, or privileges allowed, on the importation, into the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, of any

article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States of America, whether such importation shall be in vessels of the said States, or in Portuguese vessels; and, reciprocally, the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties, deductions, or privileges allowed, on the importation, into the United States of America, of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, whether such importation shall be in Portuguese vessels, or in vessels of the said States.

ART. V.—It is agreed by the high contracting parties that, whenever there may be lawfully imported into all or any of the ports of the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, in vessels of any foreign country, articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of a country other than that to which the importing vessels shall belong, the same privilege shall immediately become common to vessels of the United States of America, with all the same rights and favors as may, in that respect, be granted to the most favored nations. And, reciprocally, in consideration thereof, Portuguese vessels shall thereafter enjoy, in the same respect, privileges, rights, and favors, to a correspondent extent, in the ports of the United States of America.

ART. VI.—All kinds of merchandise and articles of commerce, which may be lawfully exported or re-exported from the ports of either of the high contracting parties to any foreign country, in national vessels, may also be exported or re-exported therefrom in vessels of the other party, respectively, without paying other or higher duties or charges of whatever kind or denomination, than if the same merchandise or articles of commerce were exported or re-exported in national vessels.

And the same bounties and drawbacks shall be allowed, whether such exportation or re-exportation be made in the vessels of the one party or the other.

ART. VII.—It is expressly understood that nothing contained in this treaty shall be applicable to the coastwise navigation of either of the two countries, which each of the high contracting parties reserves exclusively to itself.

ART. VIII.—It is mutually understood that the foregoing stipulations do not apply to ports and territories in the kingdom and possessions of Portugal, where foreign commerce and navigation are not admitted; and that the commerce and navigation of Portugal, directly to and from the United States of America and the said ports and territories, are also prohibited.

But her most faithful majesty agrees, that as soon as the said ports and territories, or any of them, shall be open to the commerce or navigation of any foreign nation, they shall, from that moment, be also opened to the commerce and navigation of the United States of America, with the same privileges, rights, and favors as may be allowed to the most favored nation; gratuitously, if the concession was gratuitously made, or on allowing the same compensation, or an equivalent, if the concession was conditional.

ART. X.—The two contracting parties shall have the liberty of having, each in the ports of the other, consuls, vice consuls, agents, and commissaries of their own appointment, who shall enjoy the same privileges and powers as those of the most favored nation. But, before any consul, vice consul, agent, or commissary shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent.

But, if any such consuls shall exercise commerce, they shall be submitted to the same laws and usages to which the private individuals of their nation are submitted, in the same place, in respect of their commercial transactions.

And it is hereby declared that, in case of offence against the laws, such consul, vice consul, agent, or commissary may either be punished according to law, or sent back, the offended government assigning to the other reasons for the same.

The archives and papers of the consulates shall be respected inviolably; and under no pretext whatever shall any magistrate seize, or in any way interfere with them.

The consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents, shall have the right as such, to sit

as judges and arbitrators, in such differences as may arise between the captains and crews of vessels belonging to the nation whose interests are committed to their charge, without the interference of the local authorities, unless the conduct of the crews, or of the captains, should disturb the order or the tranquillity, or offend the laws of the country; or the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents should require their assistance to cause their decisions to be carried into effect or supported.

ART. XI.—The said consuls, vice consuls, and commercial agents are authorized to require the assistance of the local authorities for the search, arrest, detention, and imprisonment of the deserters from the ships of war and merchant vessels of their country.

For this purpose, they shall apply to the competent tribunals, judges, and officers, and shall, in writing, demand the said deserters, proving, by the exhibition of the registers of the vessels, the rolls of the crews, or by any other official documents, that such individuals formed part of the crews; and this reclamation being thus substantiated, the surrender shall be made without delay.

Such deserters, when arrested, shall be placed at the disposal of the said consuls, vice consuls, or commercial agents, and may be confined in the public prisons, at the request and cost of those who shall claim them, in order to be detained until the time when they shall be restored to the vessels to which they belonged, or sent back to their own country, by a vessel of the same nation, or any other vessel whatsoever.

But, if not sent back within four months from the day of their arrest, they shall be set at liberty, and shall not be again arrested for the same cause. However, if the deserter shall be found to have committed any crime or offence, the surrender may be delayed until the tribunal, before which his case shall be pending, shall have pronounced its sentence and such sentence shall have been carried into effect.

ART. XIII.—If either party shall, hereafter, grant to any other nation any particular favor in navigation and commerce, it shall immediately become common to the other party; freely, where it is freely granted to such other nation, or on yielding the same compensation, or an equivalent, *quam proxime*, where the grant is conditional.

NEW TARIFF OF DUTIES AT VENEZUELA.

CHANGES IN THE TARIFF OF DUTIES ON EXPORTS AND IMPORTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

The department of state at Washington has received officially from the government of Venezuela, information of the following changes in the tariff of duties on exports and imports of that republic; which changes were to take effect from and after the 1st day of July, 1841.

1. All duties on exports from the ports of the republic cease.

2. The following articles will hereafter be admitted into those ports free from duty:—

Bricks, bran, moulds for sugar mills, living animals of all kinds, ploughs, peas, rice, oats, scarfs for the use of churches, drills, casks and barrels, pumps of wood or iron for irrigation, coal, carts or wagons, wheelbarrows, surplices and other garments for priests, collections or books of music or drawings, and paper prepared for music or drawings, columns of all kinds for buildings, iron cooking stoves, jackets, staves, juniper berries, baggage of passengers, statues of all sorts, copper or iron sugar or still boilers, Dutch ovens, beans, engravings, mathematical or other scientific instruments, boats of iron or wood set up or in pieces, lentils, parts of sugar mills, printed books and maps, files, Indian corn, apples, cotton gins, machines for dredging, mining, spinning, weaving, and shelling corn, steam engines, gold and silver, pans of copper, brass, or zinc, printing paper, potatoes, carriage and cart wheels, seeds, brushes.

3. The duties on the following articles have been diminished, and will in future be thus:—

Boots for men, the pair, \$1; do. for boys, do., 75 cents; pitch, the quintal, \$1 00;

beer, in bottles, the dozen, 80 cents; do., in other vessels, arroba, 50 cents; brooms, of all sorts, the dozen, 50 cents; pepper, the quintal, \$3 00; slates, each, 6 cents; tallow, in lump, the quintal, \$2 00; do., manufactured, do., \$4 00; cider, in bottles, the dozen, 80 cents; do., in other vessels, arroba, 50 cents; white pine boards, the 1000 feet, \$4 00; pitch pine boards, do., \$6 00; shoes for men, the pair, 30 cents; do., for women, do., 20 cents; do., for children, do., 6 cents.

NEW COMMERCIAL REGULATION OF PERU.

The department of state at Washington, (July 7, 1841,) publish officially a decree of which the following is a translation, which has been issued by the government of Peru, taking effect from and after the 1st of February, 1841 :—

“All vessels, whether national or foreign, coming from a foreign country, are absolutely prohibited from touching at any of the minor ports or coves of the republic, under a pain of a fine of one thousand dollars, payable by the captain in favor of the informants; for which the vessel is liable, whether belonging to the captain or to others. If, moreover, it be proved that any person, or goods, or letters, have been landed from the vessel at any port at which she may have thus touched contrary to law, the vessel shall be confiscated, and the captain will, in addition, become liable to a criminal prosecution.”

It is important that this regulation should be made known to our vessels, particularly to those employed in whaling, which have been in the habit of touching at many of the minor ports and coves, (including all places on the coast which are not regular ports of entry,) for the purpose of obtaining refreshments. Revenue cutters have been fitted out at Callao for the enforcement of the decree.

COTTON-PRESSING IN NEW ORLEANS.

The abuses of this system have reached such a height, that the shipmasters in New Orleans have addressed a circular to planters, merchants, shipowners, and others interested in the cotton trade, complaining loudly of the evils of the system, and calling for a remedy; recommending the abolishment of pressing, and the shipping of cotton just as it is turned out from the planters' presses.

The delay occasioned by the present pressing system more than counterbalances any benefits derived from it. In order to bring about a change, the following plan is recommended by the circular :—

1. That all owners of vessels, engaged in the trade, instruct their captains not to have their cotton repressed, and that this measure be acted on in concert in the United States and Great Britain, from the 1st October, 1841.

2. They advise planters not to consign cotton to any house that will not receive it when landed, and put it into safe sheds and stores where it will be free from wet, damage, and stealage.

MASTERS OF VESSELS AND NON-RESIDENTS.

By a law of the last legislature of the state of New York, it is made lawful for the owners or masters of any vessel on board of which the goods of any non-resident, concealed, or absconding debtor shall have been shipped in good faith, for the purpose of transportation, without reshipment or transshipment in this state, to any port or place out of this state, to transport and deliver such goods according to their destination, notwithstanding the issuing of any attachment against such debtor, unless the attaching creditor, his agent, or attorney, shall execute a bond, with sufficient sureties, to any or either of the owners or masters of the vessel on board of which such goods shall be shipped, conditioned to pay such owner or master all expenses, damages, and charges which may be incurred by such owners or master, or to which they may be subjected for unlading said goods from said vessel, and for all necessary detention of said vessel for that purpose.

This act is not extended to any case where such owner or master, either before or at the time of the shipment of such goods, shall have received actual information of the issuing of such attachment, nor where the owner or the master of any vessel have in any wise connived at or been privy to the shipment of such goods, for the purpose of screening them from legal process, or for the purpose of hindering, delaying, or defrauding creditors.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

STATISTICS OF ENGLISH NAVIGATION.

We gather from an article in an English publication, that in the year 1821, the total number of foreign ships which entered the ports of Great Britain was 3,216, with a burden of 396,256 tons, and a complement of 26,043 men; and this number in 1838 had increased to 10,286 ships, 1,331,765 tons, and 79,550 men. The most rapid increase of foreign shipping is among the Baltic powers, the commercial marine of Prussia employed in British commerce having increased in eighteen years from 159 ships and 1,662 men to 1,283 ships and 10,729 men; that of Denmark from 46 ships and 203 men to 1,532 ships and 7,552 men; and that of Hamburg and the other Hanseatic towns, from 36 ships and 249 men to 325 ships and 2,695 men. The increase in the shipping of France, the United States, Russia, and Holland, employed in the trade with England, seems to have been less rapid, though still very considerable. In the same period of eighteen years, the American shipping thus employed had increased from 450 ships worked by 6,216 seamen to 558 ships and 10,533 seamen; the Russian from 45 ships worked by 586 seamen to 293 ships worked by 3,331 seamen; and the Dutch and Belgian from 456 ships worked by 2,560 seamen to 1,017 ships worked by 8,927 seamen.

A comparison between the amount of British shipping and the number of men employed in the trade with foreign countries and the British colonies, gives the following result, which exhibits a vast idea of the value of the colonial trade to Great Britain as a nursery for seamen. In 1838, the shipping employed in trade with foreign countries amounted to 11,035 vessels, 1,750,333 tons, 99,685 men. Shipping employed in the trade with the British colonies, 6,600 vessels, 1,351,317 tons, 10,854 men.

CAUTION TO WHALEMEN BOUND TO THE INDIAN OCEAN.

The New London Advocate, good authority on all matters concerning the whale fishery, cautions all whalemens who, during their voyage to the Indian Ocean, intend to call at Swan River, on the west coast of New Holland, for refreshments or other purposes, not to attempt an entrance at either of the southern passages, they being so intricate and difficult of access, that the pilot is now expressly forbid attempting them with ships. Although the directions in Owen's charts, which are in general use with whalemens about that coast, have the southern channels all so distinctly put down, that they are, apparently, a sure guide, having buoys represented at practicable distances on the verges of the channels, several whaling ships have miraculously escaped from being lost in attempting to enter them during the year past. They are literally surrounded with coral rocks, reefs, and shoals, and no buoys or guides of any description are to be found on any of them.

The only safe passage for strangers, "and this clear and spacious," is between Rottnest Island and the main land, passing the island on the side $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile distant. You then have no obstacles, when steering for the anchorage, but the would-be pilot or harbor-master, Capt. G. C. Garret, and at first sight of him, stand by your anchor; you surely will be near the anchoring ground, when, forsooth, he may be on board in time to say "let go," for which the sum of \$20 is demanded, and \$20 more on your weighing

anchor, when he leaves your ship and the master to go out as he came in—his own pilot. The high price of \$40, as pilotage, has now become a law, and must be paid before you receive a clearance, whether this functionary has or has not offered his services as such. Other expenses at Swan River are in due ratio. In the line of recruits:—potatoes, \$150 per ton; onions, \$8 per 100; fresh beef, 30 cents per lb., and very little at that; mutton, 28 cents, to be had semi-weekly.

PLYMOUTH BREAKWATER.

The Plymouth (Eng.) Breakwater is nearly a mile in length, is fifteen yards wide at top, and six feet above high-water mark. It has been twenty-eight years in progress, has consumed 3,362,727 tons of stone, and cost £1,200,000.

BANK STATISTICS.

THE BANK OF FRANCE.

REPORT PRESENTED TO THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE PROPRIETORS, BY COUNT D'ARBOUT,
GOVERNOR OF THE BANK.

In a commercial point of view, the year 1840 was not free from vicissitudes. During the last six months, some uneasiness prevailed; the transactions became less active, the discount on commercial effects diminished, but other operations assumed a greater extension. Taken together, however, the years 1839 and 1840 present nearly the same results:—

In 1839 the mass of operations realized by the central bank and its	<i>Francs.</i>
branches amounted to.....	1,454,000,000
In 1840 they were.....	1,461,000,000

Total for the two years,.....	2,915,000,000
Differences,.....	7,000,000

The dividend paid in 1839 was 144f., and in 1840 139f.

In 1840 the advances on canal shares, loans on rentes, the discount on mint bonds, and the advance on ingots, exhibit a more or less considerable increase.

The discount on commercial paper, obligations of the city of Paris, and bonds secured by the produce of forests, underwent, on the other hand, some diminution. These fluctuations will be seen by the annexed comparative returns:—

	1839. <i>Francs.</i>	1840. <i>Francs.</i>
The advances on canal shares rose from.....	13,227,000	to 16,395,000
Loans on rentes, from.....	19,850,000	to 46,356,000
Discount of mint bonds, from.....	32,826,000	to 45,130,000
Advance on ingots, from.....	195,975,000	to 241,786,000

Total,.....	261,878,000	to 349,667,000
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These united augmentations form a sum of 87,789,000f.

On the other hand:—

	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
The discount on treasury bills and obligations of the city		
of Paris fell from.....	1,399,000	to 1,151,000
The discount on foreign securities, from.....	5,244,000	to 2,595,000
And finally, the discount on commercial paper, from..	1,047,054,000	to 928,534,000

Total, from.....	1,053,697,000	to 932,280,000
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These reductions amounted together to 121,417,000f., which exhibit a falling off in the operations of the central bank, in 1840, of 33,634,000f.

The greatest amount of bills *en porte feuille* was 201,000,000f. on the 31st of January, and the minimum 130,000,000f. on the 8th of June; on the 31st December it again rose to 154,000,000f.

600,600 commercial effects were discounted in 1840 by the central bank; that is, 27,800 less than in 1839. Their average amount declined from 1,639f. to 1,517f.; and the average of the periods at which they became due from 57 days two thirds to 56 days four fifths. In this number 266,024 bills of from 1000f. to 200f., and 63,247 of 199f. and under, were admitted.

The bills due at the end of the different months varied from 34,200f. to 40,600f. Those payable on demand amounted to 891,000,000f., or 16,000,000f. more than in 1839.

The various current accounts underwent great fluctuations. From the month of January to that of October they rose from 54,000,000f. to 90,000,000f. In December they had fallen to 61,000,000f.

On the 6th of January, 1840, the treasury was creditor to the amount of 170,000,000f., and on the 21st March, of 193,000,000f. From March to the 6th of November, this account progressively decreased to 105,000,000f. On the 30th of December, it again rose to 114,000,000f.

The 6th of January, 1840, was the date of the *minimum* of the reserve, which was then 206,000,000f.; on the 21st of March it had reached 248,000,000f.; on the 17th of April, 249,600,000f.; on the 6th of November, it still offered the sum of 237,000,000f.; and on the 30th of December it had fallen to 225,000,000f.

In comparing the movements of the reserve with those of the Treasury account, it will be found that between the 6th of January and the 21st of March, the Treasury account increased by 23,000,000f., and the reserves augmented in a nearly double proportion, having risen to 42,000,000f.; that between the 21st of March and the 6th of November the treasury withdrew 88,000,000f., and the reserves declined only 11,000,000f.; that, finally, on the 30th of December, the cash on hand exceeded nearly by 20,000,000f. that existing on the 6th of January, 1840, although at the first of those periods the treasury was creditor of 170,000,000f., and at the second its credit only amounted to 114,000,000f.

The average of the reserve of the year was 258,900,000f., and that of the circulation 221,900,000f. The circulation of 1840 exceeded by 9,000,000f. that of 1839. From the 19th day of March to the 31st day of October, it fluctuated between a *minimum* of 201,000,000f. and a *maximum* of 251,000,000f.

The commercial bills unpaid in 1840 amounted to 48,493f.; 32,707f. were reimbursed in the course of the year, and on the 1st of January last there remained due 15,785f.

The movement of the shares was more considerable than during the previous years. In 1839, 6,454 shares changed masters. In 1840, the number transferred to new owners was 16,805.

The ordinary administrative expenditures in 1839 rose to 1,020,000f.; in 1840 they were reduced to 971,000f. The diminution was 48,500f.; but, on the other hand, the administration in 1840 had to support an extraordinary expense of 101,800f., owing principally to the license duty, which the bank had to pay for the first time; to the stamp duty, imposed on the circulation of bills by the law of the 30th of June last; and some indispensable repairs.

The branch banks in the departments were progressing satisfactorily. The operations of those established at Rheims, St. Etienne, St. Quentin, and Montpellier, had amounted, in 1838, to 83,000,000f., and to 138,000,000f. in 1839. They reached 179,000,000f. in 1840, having more than doubled in the space of three years. The gross produce of those four branches was 1,099,000f.; their expenses amounted to 253,000f., including 112,000f. for the cost of carriage of specie. The nett produce was 836,000f., representing a dividend of 12f. 30c. per share.

The other branch banks were opened in 1840, at Grenoble and Angoulême, but having commenced at a late period of the year, their operations had not covered the expenses of their establishment, the total loss having been 44,936f.

Statement of the condition of the banks in the state of New York from 1819 to 1841.

DATE.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Real Estate.	Other Investments.	Due by Other Banks.
1819	33	-
Jan. 1, '30	30	-
Jan. 1, '31	78	-	09 1,583,701	...	9,560,018
Jan. 1, '35	184	-	68 1,594,937	27,813	12,211,905
Jan. 1, '36	86	-	59 1,811,925	442,696	15,991,168
Jan. 1, '37	98	-	52 2,263,857	1,123,225	18,832,254
June 1, '37	194	-	81 2,120,551	3,915,631	13,679,040
July 1, '37	194	-	81 2,130,180	4,111,151	14,304,955
Aug. 1, '37	194	-	81 2,185,612	4,436,580	17,997,245
Sept. 1, '37	194	-	81 2,194,738	4,550,254	17,509,608
Oct. 1, '37	194	-	81 2,222,901	4,494,030	17,271,457
Nov. 1, '37	194	-	99 2,260,904	5,572,896	17,556,396
Dec. 1, '37	194	-	76 2,280,227	6,097,500	17,797,852
Jan. 1, '38	95	-	77 2,356,249	6,012,661	13,196,195
Feb. 1, '38	94	-	76 2,352,628	4,321,994	16,548,020
Mar. 1, '38	94	-	76 2,363,384	4,619,312	14,388,325
April 1, '38	94	-	79 2,366,456	3,813,302	14,603,771
May 1, '38	94	-	39 2,383,828	4,554,462	14,331,663
January, '39	96	-	23 2,557,655	1,139,662	14,122,940
January, '40	96	-	70 2,937,695	1,081,967	6,543,125
January, '40	663	-	50	...	2,600,622
January, '41	95	-	92 3,588,132	861,643	10,061,012

STATEMENT, ETC.—Continued.

DATE.	Numb. of Banks.	Numb. of Branches.	Notes of Other Banks.	Specie Funds.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due Other Banks.
1819	33	-	2,000,000	12,500,000
Jan. 1, '30	20	-	1,560,291	7,959,280	10,354,500	...
Jan. 1, '31	78	-	6,888,734	...	2,657,503	17,820,402	19,119,338	10,590,265
Jan. 1, '35	184	2	6,805,045	670,363	7,169,949	16,199,505	21,082,685	16,551,841
Jan. 1, '36	86	2	10,237,574	1,277,886	6,224,646	21,127,927	29,532,616	19,783,482
Jan. 1, '37	98	2	12,487,610	3,268,648	6,557,027	24,198,000	30,883,179	20,462,823
June 1, '37	194	2	5,413,877	1,492,768	3,033,209	15,422,127	23,440,374	12,019,034
July 1, '37	194	2	5,888,127	1,459,629	3,018,173	15,278,330	22,072,094	14,186,056
Aug. 1, '37	194	2	6,323,062	1,356,293	2,972,570	15,471,667	20,463,992	15,990,813
Sept. 1, '37	194	2	5,115,376	1,158,669	2,937,581	14,190,516	19,508,295	15,875,624
Oct. 1, '37	194	2	5,981,366	1,390,509	3,103,950	15,531,288	20,250,039	13,763,906
Nov. 1, '37	194	2	5,957,629	1,040,960	3,292,081	15,468,565	18,729,039	14,018,002
Dec. 1, '37	194	2	5,990,771	1,170,187	3,722,083	14,154,119	18,287,588	14,169,811
Jan. 1, '39	95	2	3,616,918	618,277	4,139,732	12,432,478	15,895,684	15,221,487
Feb. 1, '38	94	2	5,730,929	774,434	4,191,281	11,664,355	17,102,966	14,181,717
Mar. 1, '38	94	2	5,758,559	940,013	4,359,813	11,220,450	16,533,444	13,228,860
April 1, '38	94	2	6,175,645	794,633	5,117,063	11,057,935	16,503,123	13,812,266
May 1, '38	94	2	7,327,834	960,037	9,355,495	12,960,632	18,411,860	14,307,517
January, '39	96	2	3,907,137	2,838,694	6,602,708	19,373,149	18,370,041	15,314,098
January, '40	96	2	4,401,400	2,310,161	5,864,634	10,629,514	16,473,235	7,055,584
January, '40	663	-	1,135,895	3,590,790	3,587,999	3,119,589
January, '41	95	2	4,922,764	2,188,565	5,429,622	15,235,056	17,053,279	10,374,689

* Not complete.

† Exclusive of Fulton Bank, and Delaware & Hudson Canal Company.

‡ All the banks in the state, except the Dry Dock Bank, the Brooklyn Bank, the Sea-land's Harbor Bank, and the Lockport Bank.

§ Free banks.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following table is the first official account of the census of 1840 yet published. It was furnished to the Senate by the Secretary of State, in obedience to a resolution of that body, and ordered to be printed.

Statement, showing the aggregate in the population of the several states and territories, and in the District of Columbia, under the last census, distinguishing the number of whites, free persons of color, and all other persons, as nearly as can be ascertained at this time.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	White Popu- lation.	Free Colored Persons.	All other Per- sons.	TOTAL.
Maine,.....	500,438	1,355	501,793
New Hampshire,.....	284,036	537	1	284,574
Massachusetts,.....	729,030	8,668	1	737,699
Rhode Island,.....	105,587	3,238	5	108,830
Connecticut,.....	301,856	8,105	17	309,948
Vermont,.....	291,218	730	291,948
New York,.....	2,378,890	50,027	4	2,428,921
New Jersey,.....	351,588	21,044	674	373,308
Pennsylvania,.....	1,676,115	47,854	64	1,724,033
Delaware,.....	58,561	16,919	2,605	78,085
Maryland,.....	317,717	62,020	89,495	469,232
Virginia,.....	740,968	49,842	448,987	1,239,797
North Carolina,.....	484,870	22,732	245,817	753,419
South Carolina,.....	259,084	8,276	327,038	594,398
Georgia,.....	407,695	2,753	280,844	691,392
Alabama,.....	335,185	2,039	253,532	590,756
Mississippi,.....	179,074	1,366	195,211	375,601
Louisiana,.....	153,983	24,368	165,219	344,570
Tennessee,.....	640,627	5,524	183,059	829,510
Kentucky,.....	587,542	7,309	182,072	776,923
Ohio,.....	1,502,122	17,342	3	1,519,467
Indiana,.....	678,698	7,165	3	685,866
Illinois,.....	472,354	3,598	331	476,183
Missouri,.....	323,888	1,574	58,240	383,702
Arkansas,.....	77,174	465	19,935	97,574
Michigan,.....	211,560	707	212,267
Florida territory,.....	27,728	820	25,559	54,107
Wisconsin, do.....	30,566	178	8	30,752
Iowa,.....do.....	42,864	153	18	43,035
District of Columbia,.....	30,657	4,361	4,694	43,712
	14,181,575	386,069	2,483,536	17,051,180

Population, as per above table,.....17,051,180
 Lafayette Parish, Louisiana, not included in the above,..... 7,832
 Estimated population of Carter county, Kentucky, not included,..... 3,000

Seamen in the service of the United States, June 1st, 1840..... 17,062,012
 6,100

Total population of the United States,.....17,068,112

CENSUS OF PENNSYLVANIA, 1830 AND 1840.

A Table, showing the population and comparative increase of each county in the state, according to the census of 1830, and that of 1840; compiled from official documents, by SAMUEL HAZARD, Esq., of the United States Statistical Register.

COUNTIES.	1830.	1840.	RATE OF INCREASE PER CT.	
			1830 to '40.	1820 to '30.
Adams,(e)	21,379	23,044	7 9.10	10½
Allegheny,	50,552	81,235	60 6.10	45
Armstrong,	17,701	28,365	60 2.10	70
Beaver,	24,183	29,368	21 3.10	56
Bedford,	24,502	29,335	19 7.10	21
Berks,(e)	53,152	64,569	21 4.10	15
Bradford,	19,746	32,769	65 9.10	70
Bucks,(e)	45,745	48,107	5 1.10	21
Butler,	14,581	22,378	53 4.10	44
Cambria,	7,076	11,256	59	115
Centre,	18,879	20,492	36
Chester,(e)	50,910	57,515	12 9.10	15
Clearfield,	4,803	7,834	63 1.10	105
Clinton,	*8,323
Columbia,	20,059	24,267	20 9.10	14
Crawford,	16,030	31,724	97 8.10	70
Cumberland,(e)	29,226	30,953	5 8.10	24
Dauphin,(e)	25,243	30,118	19 3.10	17
Delaware,(e)	17,323	19,791	14 2.10	17
Erie,	17,041	31,344	83 4.10	98
Fayette,	29,172	33,574	15	7
Franklin,(e)	35,037	37,793	7 8.10	10
Greene,	18,028	19,147	6 2.10	16
Huntingdon,	27,145	35,484	30 6.10	35
Indiana,	14,252	20,782	45 8.10	60
Jefferson,	2,025	7,253	258 1.10	261
Lancaster,(e)	76,631	84,203	9 8.10	12
Lebanon,(e)	20,557	21,872	6 3.10	21
Lehigh,(e)	22,256	25,787	15 8.10	19
Luzerne,	27,379	44,006	60 7.10	36
Lycoming,	17,636	22,649	30½
Mercer,	19,729	32,873	66 6.10	69
Mifflin, }	21,690	13,092	{ 11 3.10	30
Juniata, }		11,080		
Monroe,(e)	19,879
Montgomery,(e)	39,406	47,241	19 8.10	10
McKeon,	1,439	2,975	106 7.10	97
Northampton,(e)	†39,482	40,996
Northumberland,	18,133	20,027	10 4.10	18
Perry,(e)	14,261	17,096	19 8.10	26
Philadelphia, city, (e)...	80,462	93,615	16 4.10	38
Philadelphia, county, (e)	108,305	164,372	51 7.10
Pike,(e)	‡4,843	3,832	66
Potter,	1,265	3,371	166 7.10	580
Schuylkill,(e)	20,744	29,053	40	83
Somerset,	17,762	19,650	10 1.2	27
Susquehanna,	16,787	21,195	26 3.10	68
Tioga,	8,978	15,494	72 1.2	125
Union,	20,795	22,787	9 1.2	13
Venango,	9,470	17,900	89	86
Warren,	4,679	9,278	98 3.4	138
Washington,	42,784	41,279	7
Wayne,(e)	7,663	11,848	54 1.2	85
Westmoreland,	38,400	42,699	11 1.10	25
York,(e)	42,859	47,010	9 6.10	10
	1,348,203	1,724,033	27 8.10

Clarion county (new) is included in Armstrong and Venango. Washington county is the only county in the state which has diminished in population during the last ten years without losing territory.

Aggregate of 1830.	1840.	Increase.
Eastern district,.....	755,484	908,644
Western do.	592,719	815,389

N. B.—The counties marked (e) are in the eastern district, the others in the western.

* New county from Centre and Lycoming.
† New county from Northampton and Pike.
‡ Including seven townships (population in 1830, 6,764) now in Monroe co. In the remaining townships making the present Northampton co. the population has increased 25½ per cent since 1830.
§ Including these townships now part of Monroe county.

Comparative view of the population of the principal cities in the state of New York, at the periods designated in the following table, with their increase per cent.

CLASS.	CITIES.	1820.	1830.	Increase from 1820 to 1830.	1840.	Increase from 1830 to 1840.	Increase from 1820 to 1840.
		Popula'n.	Popula'n.	Per cent.	Popula'n.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1	New York,...	123,706	202,589	63 77-100	312,932	54 47-100	152 96-100
2	Brooklyn,.....	7,475	15,295	104 62-100	36,233	136 89-100	384 72-100
3	Albany,.....	12,630	24,209	91 68-100	33,663	39 5-100	166 53-100
4	Rochester,.....	1,502	9,269	517 11-100	20,202	117 95-100	1245 1-100
5	Troy,.....	5,261	11,556	119 65-100	19,373	67 64-100	268 24-100
6	Buffalo,.....	2,095	6,321	201 72-100	18,041	185 41-100	761 15-100
7	Utica,.....	2,762	8,323	201 34-100	12,810	53 91-100	363 79-100
8	Schenectady,..	3,939	4,268	8 35-100	6,688	56 7-10	69 79-100
9	Hudson,.....	5,310	5,392	1 54-100	5,671	5 17-100	6 8-10

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

NEW JERSEY RAILROAD.

The New Jersey railroad, from Jersey to New Brunswick, recently declared a semi-annual dividend of three per cent. The Newark Daily Advertiser publishes, as a proof of the revival of business intercourse in the community, and as a testimony, (though not conclusive,) in favor of the policy of reduced prices in an active commercial society, the following statistics, furnished from the books of the company. The statement, it will be perceived, embraces the first six months of the years 1839, '40, and '41, and affords a comparative view of the travelling on the railroad during those periods. The state of New Jersey receives from \$8,000 to \$10,000 in transit duties.

This road is in excellent condition; the conductors are obliging and attentive, the engineers careful, and more trustworthy subordinates are not easily to be found. It would afford us equal pleasure to speak in the same terms of commendation of the road from Trenton to Philadelphia, but the complaints by the cars occasionally running off the tracks are too general.

Statement of Passengers carried on the New Jersey Railroad, for the first six months of the years 1839, 1840, and 1841.

1839—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,.....	72,675
“ “ Elizabethtown,.....	4,581
“ “ Rahway,.....	7,320½
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	14,769
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,.....	2,582
“ “ Rahway,.....	2,149½
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	1,947½
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,.....	3,192½

Total Passengers,.....109,217

1840—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,.....	77,457
“ “ Elizabethtown,.....	6,733
“ “ Rahway,.....	8,973
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	14,091½
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,.....	4,475½
“ “ Rahway,.....	1,682
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	1,870
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,.....	2,773

Total passengers,.....118,005

1841—JANUARY 1st TO JULY 1st.

Between New York and Newark,.....	123,966
“ “ Elizabethtown,.....	11,674½
“ “ Rahway,.....	9,750½
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	15,144½
Between Newark and Elizabethtown,.....	6,093½
“ “ Rahway,.....	2,156
“ “ New Brunswick,.....	2,452
Way passengers to and from places between Elizabethtown and New Brunswick,	3,846
Total Passengers,.....	175,083

The number of Passengers carried in the Philadelphia lines, for which a transit duty of three cents each is paid to the state of New Jersey.

1839—January 1st to July 1st,.....	35,320½
1840—January 1st to July 1st,.....	36,477½
1841—January 1st to July 1st,.....	44,299½

WESTERN STEAMBOATS.

The following steamboat statistics are compiled from data found in the Louisville Directory, just published. They exhibit an aggregate amount of steamboat tonnage that presents the commercial importance of the west in a strong light.

The number of steamboats now afloat on the western and southwestern waters is about 400. Of these there are—

Of 500 tons and over,.....	9 boats	Of 100 tons, and under 200, 189 boats	
400 do. and under 500.....	13 "	50 do. and under 100, 77 "	
300 do. and under 400.....	23 "	Under 50 do.....	5 "
200 do. and under 300.....	79 "		

Of a few the tonnage is not reported.

The boats of the 1st class average about 600 tons, making an aggregate of 5,400 tons.	
“ 2d “ “ 450 “ “	5,850 “
“ 3d “ “ 350 “ “	8,050 “
“ 4th “ “ 150 “ “	30,240 “
“ 5th “ “ 90 “ “	5,160 “
“ 6th “ “ 40 “ “	200 “
Total tonnage,.....	55,000 “

Of these boats, there were built—

At Pittsburg,.....	112
At Cincinnati,.....	70
At Louisville, New Albany, and Jeffersonville,.....	55
At Wheeling,.....	20

The residue at Brownsville, Marietta, Portsmouth, and other places, all on the western waters, except four or five built in eastern ports.

COST OF TRANSPORTATION ON CANALS, RAILROADS, &c.

The inquiry is frequently made, what is the difference in the cost of transportation on canals and railroads? This question is answered by the following statement, made two years since, by Mr. Charles Ellet, Jr., Chief Engineer on the James River and Kanawha Canal and Railroad:—

Cost of freight on canals, exclusive of tolls, 1½ cent per ton per mile.

Railroads, 2½ cents.

McAdam roads, 10 to 15 cents.

Common turnpikes, 15 to 20 cents.

Steamboats on the lakes, 2 to 4 cents per ton per mile.

Steamboats on the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, ½ to 1½; future average, ¾ cent per ton per mile.

STATISTICS OF AGRICULTURE.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Abstract from the Agricultural Statistics, as returned by the Marshals, under the sanction of the act for taking the sixth census. Positively furnished for publication in the *Merchant's Magazine*, by the Hon. Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

States and Territories.	Horses and Mules.	Wool Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Value of Produce.	Number of bushels of Wheat.	Number of bushels of Barley.	Number of bushels of Oats.	Number of bushels of Rye.	Number of bushels of Buckwheat.	Number of bushels of Indian Corn.
Maine.*	10,208	227,255	6,402,264	117,264	9,122,171	6,661,168	259,161	1,076,408	137,941	61,543	800,526
New Brunswick.	10,250	261,088	616,711	120,167	97,002	4,423,264	121,404	1,195,946	285,238	115,108	1,252,572
New York.	60,374	200,105	1,388,428	297,052	176,437	622,398	66,682	2,543,467	477,314	159,609	1,047,601
Pennsylvania.	62,484	271,760	376,328	143,021	540,303	151,8254	178,419	1,489,680	541,564	67,010	1,409,368
Delaware.	8,074	36,700	90,144	29,619	61,408	3,090	68,790	119,978	54,523	2,979	425,595
Maryland.	24,751	233,089	408,362	182,222	176,620	86,930	33,749	1,456,522	730,141	389,470	1,408,634
Virginia.	478,115	642,439	391,222	2,116,953	2,573,024	11,853,517	2,493,170	20,729,738	2,984,915	2,344,358	10,195,142
North Carolina.	68,749	219,544	218,652	269,161	412,497	774,028	12,401	2,048,511	1,636,571	146,170	4,311,861
South Carolina.	225,24	1,144,11	3,386,431	1,490,631	1,023,172	12,029,716	178,100	18,053,477	6,201,471	1,971,928	12,696,619
Georgia.	14,421	54,153	39,247	74,225	47,465	215,163	8,260	937,101	30,158	11,309	2,089,361
Florida Territory.	88,854	240,432	202,094	421,500	219,130	3,511,638	3,594	3,679,904	884,332	74,845	8,470,165
Alabama.	243,173	1,008,313	200,731	1,916,380	752,467	10,035,309	14,630	13,397,561	1,397,171	241,648	24,648,486
Mississippi.	120,828	673,840	232,684	889,513	580,794	703,026	3,067	1,446,164	4,531	72	14,721,796
Louisiana.	134,748	755,000	254,947	1,294,314	473,156	1,732,966	13,345	1,230,047	69,451	249	17,329,797
Illinois.	411,041	1,198,713	1,975,101	2,103,300	754,831	16,202,051	206,162	14,134,684	207,443	683,120	24,267,764
Indiana.	227,526	777,800	748,489	2,795,880	581,551	4,547,373	4,728	6,770,114	297,082	6,187	42,467,340
Ohio.	98,017	848,708	1,00,054	344,686	273,314	108	6,632	1,101,011	1,912	6,980,475	6,980,475
Kentucky.	124,016	637,549	144,572	701,160	629,230	745,108	6,632	1,471,797	36,672	28	18,660,653
Tennessee.	109,237	623,157	126,376	995,739	319,461	196,370	1,544	1,061,004	15,642	61	12,161,201
Alabama.	197,578	867,623	228,226	1,072,812	230,248	946,077	9,771	1,837,272	63,181	16,347	15,391,432
Missouri.	243,787	814,466	678,332	1,540,061	738,238	4,154,356	25,778	5,775,449	127,581	49,631	24,000,051
Illinois.	195,168	604,026	877,363	1,364,264	330,108	2,740,300	63,466	4,656,507	66,362	68,360	22,116,637
Michigan.	29,035	136,027	41,577	200,004	98,540	112,300	75	167,492	5,025	89	2,891,149
Wisconsin Territory.	10,801	57,446	15,164	104,291	17,101	164,737	728	216,302	3,787	6,217	1,000,343
Iowa Territory.	2,146	8,274	572	4,072	1,467	12,147	304	16,751	8,081	372	20,088
District of Columbia.											

* The returns of the states marked thus, (*) have been corrected. The statistics from the remainder of the states and territories are not yet examined.

† The aggregate not yet made.

‡ Aggregate not made. No return from Middle Florida.

§ Statistics not yet received.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

Number of bushels of Potatoes.	Tons of Hay.	Tons of Hemp and Flax.	Pounds of Cotton ginned.	Pounds of silk cocoons.	Pounds of Sugar in L.	Value of the products of the Ldery.	Value of the products of the orchard.	Gallons of Wine made.	Value of number produced.	Value of the products of the field.
0,392,384	691,053	3	117	406	226,230	\$1,493,718	143,249	2,234	\$1,303,633	2,924
6,234,901	496,647	63,040	117	4,233	1,197,398	1,558,955	221,056	14	401,358	2,200
8,216,744	734,047	244	582	1,741	4,220,541	4,692,097	1,109,347	110	345,144	1,907
5,385,652	649,425	23,132	64,955	358	678,227	2,273,219	249,177	1,306	476,841	1,307
904,776	68,417	16,883	307	17,393	51,764	218,922	32,086	745	44,484	6,562
3,414,227	426,180	147,451	471,657	2,105	10,193,991	1,365,613	302,963	6,243	147,481	2,924
10,000,508	3,160,910	763	6,567	1,846	10,497,052	1,732,367	1,732,367	14,710	3,786,173	2,200
2,074,111	326,94	23,710	1,922	78,900	1,315,676	1,315,676	1,62,363	9,416	1,97,856	1,907
8,426,921	1,199,963	170,744	350,561	1,442	2,271,420	2,271,420	1,61,867	19,182	1,66,607	1,907
200,712	21,880	602	272	1,442	1,555,977	1,555,977	1,61,867	6,562	6,562	1,907
1,012,919	110,536	54	18,916,012	2,290	26,266	66,556	114,389	7,623	260,965	5,202
2,573,476	288,740	92,123	74,157,841	3,169	1,530,541	1,530,541	688,921	37,293	516,412	5,202
2,697,711	20,008	35	51,519	2,210	30,000	577,849	52,276	6-8	504,354	735
1,184,384	9,264	1,787	164,561	3,218	231,140	592,506	136,446	6,319	106,066	153
5,629,784	1,029,311	262,630	6,023,306	4,317	6,969,036	1,706,184	461,191	161,344	303,519	430
2,378,034	30,512	45,053	26,542,449	1,163	251,745	980,608	276,767	653	200,258	3,119
846,835	36,308	5	120,174	517	249,967,730	150,619	11,969	2,364	111,403	12,238
1,600,700	13,938	16	214,307	1,351	10,125	197,442	83,111	11,253	233,923	107
1,538,625	171	16	38,451	86	70	389,177	41,119	12	152,094	2,346
684,491	44,670	20,071	8,450,727	70	252,560	69,230	76,305	22	68,150	366
1,543,180	181,183	97,637	1,921,404	379	3,730,188	751,441	80,934	3,465	213,741	366
1,856,887	156,442	50,336	415,706	1,171	304,446	433,673	113,638	471	108,070	366
230,867	579	1,069	149,959	90	2,536	34,577	7,464		161,056	366
284,033	17,908	313	12,676	676	41,750	23,939	50	25	50,305	366
12,033	1,281		55,560			75,856	3,507			

District of Columbia, 7071

* The returns of the states marked thus, (*) have been corrected. The statistics from the remainder of the states and territories are not yet examined.

† Statistics not yet received.

‡ The aggregate not yet made.

§ Aggregate not made. No return from Middle Florida.

¶ Some of the marshals have returned pounds of ginned cotton, others in the seed.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF JAMAICA.

IMPORTS FOR 1838, 1839, AND 1840.

The following table exhibits the imports into the island of Jamaica, for the years 1838, '39, '40. It was compiled from official documents.

Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Gallons Brandy,	28,654	37,129	64,456
do. Gin,	7,133	8,740	5,472
Barrels Flour,	69,111	64,631	131,745
do. Meal,	11,569	8,425	101,389
do. Bread,	6,883	9,815	21,325
Bags do.	393	683	747
Cwt. do.	1,075	1,511	26,003
Casks and Bags Rice,	17,687	8,592	28,981
Lbs. do.	265,082	447,183	3,824,588
Bushels and Barrels Corn,	33,041	49,464	75,418
Casks Dry Fish,	9,633	20,297	10,024
Boxes do. do.	9,387	18,933	21,885
Tierces do. do.	846	2,919	5,329
Barrels Packed Fish,	41,557	22,610	27,981
Kitts do.	1,334	3,814	1,433
Red Oak Staves,	2,017,482	1,587,500	5,056,750
White do. do.	1,283,571	1,107,055	512,337
Shingles,	9,407,611	7,910,965	8,356,710
Feet Lumber,	16,006,072	8,374,771	6,334,318
Wood Hoops,	825,634	860,287	1,015,381
Barrels Beef,	2,671	6,548	3,134
Barrels Pork,	9,299	14,653	21,182
Firkins Butter, Lard, &c.	17,997	24,836	21,150
Boxes Candles,	8,812	22,872	13,634
Boxes Soap,	11,350	33,557	38,864
Horses,	3,190	4,910	2,184
Mules,	988	629	168
Asses,	339	324	255
Cattle,	2,667	1,803	151
Tonnage,	113,345	111,088	121,881

COMMERCE AND BUSINESS OF OSWEGO, 1840.

A late number of the Oswego Commercial Herald contains a statement of the commerce and business of that place, of which the following is an abstract :—

The registered tonnage of vessels owned at Oswego in 1840 is 8,346 tons, and the number of entrances and clearances of American vessels being generally schooners of large class, is 1,822. There was received at Oswego during the past year 764,657 bushels of wheat. Of which 672,790 bushels have been manufactured at the Oswego mills, and the residue been exported to the north, or gone east by canal. There were manufactured there in 1840, 145,000 barrels of flour, 35,000 of which were exported to Canada, and the residue sent down the canal or consumed at home. Of salt 205,000 barrels were received at that port by the Oswego canal from the Onondaga works, of which 153,538 barrels were shipped to the upper lakes, 42,000 barrels were exported to Canadian ports on Lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence, and 14,544 barrels went to a domestic market, excepting a small quantity that remains on hand. A large quantity of agricultural and domestic products have been received there from the north, among which, 7,315 barrels of ashes, and nearly four millions of pounds of butter and cheese, have cleared for an eastern market by the canal. The tolls collected at the Oswego office for

1840 are \$51,239 23, to which the Oswego mills have contributed in tolls on flour and ship stuffs \$21,943 11, notwithstanding the large northern export of 35,477 barrels that went to market by the St. Lawrence. From the 1st of September to the close of the season, 100,000 barrels of flour were turned out at the Oswego mills, showing that they have ample power to manufacture a million of barrels during a season, if the market and profits would justify so large a business. "On the whole," says the Herald, "our commercial men have done an active, and, we believe, profitable business, with tolerably good prospects ahead for an active trade in the spring. The country is full of produce, and contracts are making by purchasers and forwarders. A large number of first-class vessels, and several steamboats are being built for the business of the ensuing season. Two fine vessels and a steamboat are building at Oswego, which will be ready for the spring trade. The American produce that went to the Montreal and Quebec markets during the past season amounts to two millions of dollars, and the 1,400 sail of square-rigged vessels that cleared from those ports during the same period, furnish some evidence of the growing Canadian trade. Stimulated and encouraged by the success that has hitherto rewarded their enterprise, our neighbors across the lake are on the alert, preparing, with ample means and increased capital, to compete for the products of the western states, and to divert the current of trade down the St. Lawrence."

TRADE, COMMERCE, AND NAVIGATION OF HAVANA.

The following is a statement of the arrivals at Havana during the year 1840:—

	Vessels.	Tons.		Vessels.	Tons.
Spanish,.....	551	70,903	Sardinian,.....	5	936½
American,.....	799	143,220½	Portuguese,.....	26	3,418
English,.....	75	13,115½	Mexican,.....	3	341
French, ...	29	5,827	Oriental,.....	1	175
Belgian,.....	16	3,426	Russian,.....	1	226
Dutch,.....	14	1,944			
Hamburg,.....	17	3,264	Total,.....	1,582	255,430½
Bremen,.....	25	4,292½	Total in 1839,.....	1,563	237,801½
Danish,.....	16	2,877½			
Prussian,.....	2	1,080	Increase in 1840,.....	19	17,629
Swedish,.....	2	383½			

Official statement of the imports and exports of Havana for the year 1840.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
<i>From—</i>		<i>To Spain and foreign ports, in</i>	
Spain, in Spanish vessels,	\$3,590,332	Spanish vessels,.....	\$3,941,237
Foreign ports, in do.	5,204,031	The United States,.....	2,916,260
Spanish America, in do.	858,175	Great Britain,.....	1,459,570
	9,652,540	France,.....	473,438
		Belgium and Holland,.....	372,519
<i>Imports by—</i>		Germany,.....	1,228,434
United States vessels,.....	3,412,927	The Baltic,.....	505,586
English vessels,.....	749,849	Italy,.....	92,868
French vessels,.....	310,977	Portugal,.....	194,912
Flemish and Dutch vessels,.....	188,028		
German vessels,.....	207,770	Total,.....	\$11,184,829
Danish vessels,.....	1,030		
Turkish vessels,.....	901	Importation of specie during the year,	
Italian vessels,.....	13,909	\$635,500; exported, \$843,417.	
Portuguese vessels,.....	8,204	The import of flour was 128,801 bbls., of	
		which 79,198 bbls. came from Spain, and	
Total,.....	\$14,556,138	39,701 from the United States.	

The whole amount of the commercial revenue was \$5,075,957. The internal taxes, &c., amounted to \$1,415,448; total, \$6,491,406.

A comparative view between 1839 and 1840 shows a difference in favor of the commerce of the port of \$1,442,257.

Statement of the Tobacco, Snuff, and Manufactured Tobacco, exported from the United States, annually—from 1821 to 1840, inclusive.

Years.	Hogsheads.	Value.	Average value per Hogshead.	Pounds of Snuff.	Pounds of Manufactured Tobacco.	Value of Snuff and Manufactured Tobacco.	Total Value of Tobacco Trade.
1821	66,858	\$5,648,962	\$84 49	44,552	1,332,949	\$149,083	\$5,798,045
1822	83,169	6,222,838	74 82	44,602	1,414,424	157,182	6,380,020
1823	99,009	6,282,272	63 46	36,684	1,987,507	154,955	6,437,627
1824	77,883	4,855,566	62 34	45,174	2,477,990	203,789	5,059,355
1825	75,984	6,115,623	80 48	53,920	1,871,368	172,353	6,287,976
1826	64,098	5,347,208	83 42	61,801	2,179,774	210,134	5,557,342
1827	100,025	6,577,123	65 75	45,812	2,730,255	239,024	6,816,147
1828	96,278	5,269,960	54 73	35,655	2,637,411	210,747	5,480,707
1829	77,131	4,982,974	64 60	19,509	2,619,399	202,306	5,185,370
1830	83,810	5,586,365	66 65	29,425	3,199,151	246,747	5,833,112
	824,245	\$56,889,291	\$69 11	417,134	22,450,228	\$1,946,410	\$58,835,701
1831	86,718	\$4,892,389	\$56 40	27,967	3,639,856	292,475	\$5,184,863
1832	106,806	5,999,769	56 18	31,175	3,456,071	295,771	6,295,540
1833	83,153	5,755,968	69 29	13,453	3,790,310	288,973	6,044,941
1834	87,979	6,595,305	74 96	57,826	3,956,579	328,409	6,928,714
1835	94,353	8,250,577	87 01	36,471	3,817,854	357,611	8,608,188
1836	109,442	10,058,640	91 54	46,018	3,246,675	435,464	10,494,104
1837	100,232	5,795,647	57 82	40,883	3,615,591	427,836	6,223,483
1838	100,593	7,392,029	73 48	75,083	5,008,147	577,420	7,869,449
1839	78,995	9,832,943	124 47	42,467	4,214,943	616,212	10,449,155
1840	119,484	9,883,957	81 05
	967,755	\$74,457,223	\$76 83	371,343	84,746,026	\$3,620,171	\$68,193,437
Total,	1,729,000	\$131,340,514	\$73 21	788,477	57,196,254	\$5,566,581	\$127,029,138

Statement, showing to what countries the larger portion of the Tobacco is exported.

YEARS.	ENGLAND.		FRANCE.		HOLLAND.		GERMANY.		ALL OTHER COUNTRIES.	TOTAL.
	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.	Hhds.	Value.		
1821	19,695	\$1,995,667	3,478	\$381,048	13,216	\$968,760	10,472	\$766,222	19,997	Hhds. 66,858
1822	26,740	2,436,805	4,665	550,591	23,584	1,339,618	11,757	734,419	16,423	83,169
1823	31,999	2,511,896	7,661	992,829	30,390	1,384,683	15,259	660,088	13,700	99,009
1824	19,418	1,646,444	4,469	528,901	23,159	1,159,883	12,808	534,858	18,029	77,893
1825	22,293	2,071,474	6,096	889,966	21,998	1,653,087	12,051	605,176	13,546	75,984
1826	25,854	2,741,980	10,739	827,913	15,465	948,279	7,523	340,782	4,517	64,097
1827	28,918	2,310,543	8,963	1,057,577	25,553	1,192,288	19,420	936,345	17,171	100,025
1828	25,176	1,619,524	5,909	800,606	21,216	818,815	23,949	900,574	20,028	96,278
1829	21,916	1,520,109	6,835	930,737	21,522	1,053,059	10,958	558,009	15,900	77,131
1830	19,910	1,537,744	7,007	995,996	22,576	1,035,756	15,318	751,860	18,999	83,910
	241,919	\$20,392,176	65,822	\$7,955,164	218,679	\$11,654,228	139,515	\$6,789,333	158,310	824,245
1831	26,372	\$1,851,717	1,673	\$151,080	23,917	\$1,104,198	19,833	\$909,246	14,923	86,718
1832	36,176	2,319,596	5,779	669,562	24,006	1,115,962	27,930	1,192,024	12,915	106,906
1833	23,772	2,245,733	4,782	692,416	19,022	863,625	21,408	1,091,436	14,169	83,153
1834	30,658	2,937,020	4,775	623,078	19,101	1,012,442	20,611	1,126,728	12,834	87,979
1835	27,563	3,397,415	6,312	864,351	17,730	902,911	27,989	1,539,362	14,759	94,353
1836	36,822	4,222,592	7,856	908,699	19,148	1,057,830	22,246	1,252,299	23,370	109,442
1837	20,723	1,750,065	9,110	723,842	22,739	930,657	28,863	1,128,229	18,797	100,232
1838	24,312	2,638,643	15,511	1,237,128	17,558	879,019	25,571	1,184,889	17,641	100,593
1839	30,068	5,362,331	9,574	901,950	12,273	883,176	14,303	994,508	12,777	78,995
1840	26,255	3,077,178	15,640	1,634,076	29,534	1,533,415	25,649	1,527,132	22,406	119,484
	282,721	\$29,802,290	81,012	\$8,406,182	205,028	\$10,253,237	234,403	\$11,945,853	164,591	967,755
Total,	524,640	\$50,184,466	146,834	\$16,361,346	423,707	\$21,907,465	373,918	\$18,734,186	322,901	1,792,000

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The preceding tables, with the accompanying remarks, were prepared by SAMUEL HAZARD, Esq., of the United States Commercial and Statistical Register. They are compiled from official documents, and exhibit in a clear and comprehensive form the condition and progress of the tobacco trade for the last twenty years.

The tables furnish a view of the tobacco trade, from 1821 to 1840.

It appears that during that period there were exported 1,792,000 hogsheads, valued by the treasury department at \$131,346,514; being an annual average of 89,600 hogsheads, or \$6,567,325.

During the years 1821 to 1839, (we have not received the account of 1840,) there were exported 788,477 pounds of snuff, and 57,196,254 pounds manufactured tobacco; valued together at \$5,556,581.

For the first ten years of the series, 1821 to 1830, there were exported 824,245 hogsheads of tobacco, valued at \$56,889,291; and during the last ten years, 1830 to 1840, 967,755 hogsheads, valued at \$74,457,223; being an excess in the last ten years over the first ten, of 143,510 hogsheads, or \$17,567,932.

The average annual export in the first ten years was 82,424 hogsheads, or \$5,688,929; and during the second ten years, 96,775 hogsheads, or \$7,445,722.

The average price during the whole twenty years was \$73 21 per hogshead. For the first ten years, \$69 11, and for the second ten years, \$76 83; or if 1,200 be taken as the average weight of the hogshead, the price during the twenty years will be 6 10-100 cents per pound; first ten years, 5½ cents, and second ten years, 6 40-100 cts. per pound.

It is to be regretted that an account of the quantities of tobacco, the produce of the different states, has not been kept, as the quality of each varies, as does also the size of the hogsheads.

It will be observed, that owing to the short crop in 1839, the average price exceeds that of other years very considerably.

It is remarkable how nearly uniform has been the quantity annually exported for the last twenty years, with the exception of four or five years.

The second table presents a view of the exports to those countries which receive from the United States the largest share of our export of tobacco.

The whole amount sent in twenty years was—

To England.....	524,640 hhds.	\$50,194,466
To France.....	146,834 "	16,361,346
To Holland.....	423,707 "	21,907,465
To Germany.....	373,918 "	18,734,186
All other countries.....	322,901 "	24,149,051

Total..... 1,792,000 \$131,346,514

In the first ten years there were shipped to England..... 241,919 hhds.

In the second ten years there were shipped to England..... 282,721 "

Being an increase in the last period of..... 40,802 "

The average annual export to England during the twenty years, was 26,132 hhds., valued at \$2,509,723.

To France in the ten years, 1821 to 1830, were exported..... 65,822 hhds.

To France in the ten years, 1830 to 1840, were exported..... 81,012 "

Being an increase in ten years of..... 15,190 "

The annual average to France is 7,341 hhds., or \$818,067.

To Holland there were exported, from 1821 to 1830..... 218,679 hhds.

To Holland there were exported, from 1830 to 1840..... 205,028 "

Being a decrease in the last ten years of..... 13,651 "

The average annual export is 21,185 hhds., or \$1,095,373.

To Germany, from 1821 to 1830, were exported.....	139,515 hhds.
To Germany, from 1830 to 1840, were exported.....	234,403 "
Being an increase of.....	94,888 "
The average annual export is 18,695 hhds., or \$936,709.	
To all other countries the exports were, in 1821 to 1830.....	158,310 hhds.
To all other countries the exports were, in 1830 to 1840.....	164,591 "

Being an increase of..... 6,281 "

Of other countries : Gibraltar, on an average of the three last years, receives annually 5,130 hhds.; Sweden and Norway, 1,564 hhds.; Belgium, 1,255 hhds.; Italy, 1,660 hhds.; Cuba, 769 hhds.; Africa, 1,108 hhds.; Spain, 1,067 hhds.; Scotland, 854 hhds.

IRON TRADE OF NEWPORT AND CARDIFF, WALES.

The following statement of the iron trade from 1829 to 1840, inclusive, is derived from Hazard's Statistical Register :—

Iron sent down the Glamorganshire Canal.		Iron sent down the Monmouthshire Canal.		Coal carried on the Glamorganshire Canal.	
	Tons.		Tons.		Tons.
1829.....	83,876	1829.....	119,082½	1829.....	83,729
1830.....	81,548	1830.....	115,755	1830.....	106,170
1831.....	70,333	1831.....	119,569½	1831.....	117,134
1832.....	83,677	1832.....	124,705½	1832.....	165,351
1833.....	112,315	1833.....	125,433½	1833.....	184,261
1834.....	110,012	1834.....	130,042½	1834.....	183,953
1835.....	119,858	1835.....	155,588½	1835.....	176,374
1836.....	123,088	1836.....	151,957½	1836.....	192,241
1837.....	124,810	1837.....	143,213½	1837.....	226,671
1838.....	130,637	1838.....	167,478½	1838.....	189,081
1839.....	132,781			1839.....	211,214
1840.....	132,002		1,352,826½	1840.....	248,484
		Sent to Newport.			
	1,305,957	1839.....	175,211		
		1840.....	194,459		
			369,670		

A Table, showing the draft and tonnage of various classes of vessels which enter the port of New York, when deeply laden.

CLASSES AND NAMES.	Tonnage.	Draft.
SHIPS OF WAR—Pennsylvania.....	2900	27 ft. 6 in.
Ships of the Line—Independence, Delaware, North Carolina.....	2300	25 8
Frigates, 1st class—Brandywine, United States, Potomac, &c....	1600	23
Do. 2d class—Congress, Constellation, &c.....	1300	21
Sloops, 1st class—John Adams, Cyane, &c.....	650	17 6
Do. 2d class—Erie, Ontario, and Boston, &c.....	504	15 9
Brigs—Dolphin, Consort, Pioneer, &c.....	210	13
12-gun Schooners—Grampus, Shark, Enterprise, &c.....	190	12 8
Steamers—Missouri, &c.....	1700	18 8
MERCHANTMEN, &c.—Steamship British Queen.....	2366	18
“ Great Western.....	1750	17 6
Ship Cornelia.....	1065	17 6
“ Roscius.....	1030	17 6
“ Garrick.....	995	17
“ Sheridan.....	995	17
“ Siddons.....	995	17
“ Patrick Henry.....	868	17 6
“ Stephen Whitney.....	860	18 6
CANAL BOATS—Erie Canal.....	50	3 6
Do. Enlarged.....	150	6
Delaware and Raritan Canal.....	180	6

Statement of the number of arrivals and tonnage of vessels at the port of New York, from 1810 to 1843 inclusive; from official authority.

Year.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.		Year.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.	Increase, etc.
1810	2311	274,943½	Increase of Tonnage since 1820.	1826	2964	402,446	56 62.100
1811	2028	249,010½		1827	2911	442,406½	72 18.100
1812	1795	191,301½		1828	2656	412,937½	60 71.100
1813	1319	143,729½		1829	2716	417,961½	62 66.100
1814	788	48,631½		1830	1986	405,307	57 74.100
1815	2120	291,072½		1831	2080	427,601½	66 41.100
1816	2224	331,076½		1832	2292	492,310	91 6.10
1817	2097	288,547½		1833	2437	521,510	102 96.100
1818	2273	297,196½		1834	2427	535,497½	108 4.10
1819	1675	266,840		1835	2450	555,056	116 2.100
1820	1947	256,951½		1836	2719	647,322	151 92.100
1821	2061	274,314½		1837	2508	629,965	145 17.100
1822	2242	319,940½		1838	1962	559,483	117 74.100
1823	2423	350,785	6 76.100	1839	2573	655,927½	155 27.100
1824	2612	372,576	24 51.100	1840	2479	618,186	140 58.100
1825	2778*	420,814½	36 52.100				
			45				
			63 73.100				

In addition to these arrivals, which are from foreign and coastwise ports, there are about 1050 schooners, sloops, &c., employed in coasting inland, not included in the above, averaging about 75 tons, making 78,750 tons. These vessels are here probably every week during the season of navigation, and about 75 steamboats, which probably are here about every other day; tonnage, 30,760.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

QUALIFICATIONS OF A MERCHANT.

The most important requisite for forming a merchant is, his having on all occasions a strict regard to truth, and his avoiding fraud and deceit as corroding cankers that must inevitably destroy his reputation and fortune. An accomplished merchant should be acquainted with the following branches of mercantile learning, which are worthy of the serious attention of every one who has the prospect of being employed in commercial pursuits. He should be able to write properly and correctly; understand all the rules of arithmetic that have any relation to commerce; know how to keep books by double and single entry, as journal, ledger, &c.; be expert in the forms of invoices, accounts of sales, policies of insurance, charter-parties, bills of lading, and bills of exchange; and know the agreement between the moneys, weights, and measures of all countries with which he has intercourse. If he deals in silk, woollen, linen, or hair manufactures, he ought to know the places where the different kinds of merchandises are manufactured, in what manner they are made, what are these materials of which they are composed, and from whence they come, the preparation of the materials before working up, and the places to which they are sent after their fabrication. He should know the lengths and breadths which silk, woollen, or hair-stuffs, linen, cottons, fustians, &c., ought to have according to the several statutes and regulations of the places where they are manufactured, with their different prices, according to the times and seasons; and if he can add to his knowledge the different dyes and ingredients which form the various colors, it will not be useless. If he confines his trade to that of oils, wines, cotton, sugar, coffee, &c., he should inform himself particularly of the appearance of the succeeding crops, in order to regulate his disposing of what he has on hand; and to learn as exactly as he can, what they have produced when got in, for his agent or director in making the necessary pur-

chases and engagements. He should be acquainted with the kinds of merchandise found more in one country than another, those which are scarce, their different species and qualities, and the most proper method of bringing them to a good market; to know which are the merchandises permitted or prohibited, as well on entering as going out of the states or country where they are made; to be acquainted with the prices of exchange, and what is the cause of its rise and fall; to know the customs due on importation of merchandises in the places to which he trades; to know the best manner of packing up, embalming, or turning the merchandises; to understand the prices and condition of freight-ing, and insuring ships and merchandise; to be acquainted with the goodness and value of all necessaries for the construction, repairs, and fitting out of shipping, also with the different manner of their building; to know the wages commonly given to the captains, officers, and sailors, and the manner of engaging with them. It would be useful for him to understand the French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and German languages, or that of any other country with which he has commercial intercourse. Although trade is of so universal a nature that it is impossible for the laws of one country to determine all the affairs relating to it, and all civilized nations show a particular regard to the "Law Merchant," or the law made by merchants among themselves, he should be acquainted with the consular jurisdiction, with the laws and customs of different countries, and in general all the ordinances and regulations that have any relation to commerce, both at home and abroad.

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

The Board of Directors take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of the following donations:—

Books—From Charles Anthon, LL. D.; Professor D. Olmsted; Boston Athenæum; President and Fellows of Harvard University, through R. L. Porter, Boston; Albert Brisbane; Thomas Eddy; Common Council, New York; A Friend.

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Manuscript copy of the New Testament, and the Pentateuch, in the Marathé language; the Koran in Arabic; a cash-book in the Guzurathé tongue, illustrating the manner in which accounts are kept throughout all India: from Henry P. Marshall, late United States Consul at Muscat.

"Birds of America, from Original Drawings by John James Audubon, F.R.S., &c. &c.," four volumes, folio; accompanied with "Ornithological Biography," by the same, five volumes, octavo: the above valuable work having been purchased for the library by the subscriptions of numerous members of the association, by the contribution of the trustees of Clinton Hall Association, and by the donations of various merchants and others, friends of the institution.

CABINET—From R. Nelson, eagle, a bird of South America, and whale's tooth; from David Perry, specimen of "sea-horse;" from Gustavus A. Brett, "sea-porcupine;" from Rev. Charles Fox, Jackson, Miss., a box of shells.

From Edward Newberry, specimen of minerals of New Jersey.

From Charles Mann, " " New York.

From Thomas Eddy, " " Pennsylvania.

AUTOGRAPHS—Valuable additions to the collection, from William Wood, Canandaigua, N. Y.; from Oscar S. Keeler; A Friend; and Gordon L. Ford.

By order,

R. E. LOCKWOOD

Corresponding Secretary.

New York, August, 1841.

DURATION OF LITERARY COPYRIGHT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

In Prussia, the exclusive right of publication is guaranteed to authors during their lives, and to their heirs for thirty years afterward. This refers only to literary works. In works of art, plays, or music, the duration of copyright extends only to ten years after the author's death. In the Germanic Confederation, literary productions of all kinds, even works of art, are protected for ten years; but this period may be extended to twenty in favor of large works, requiring much labor and expense. The Germanic Confederation intend, however, to take the subject into deliberation next year, with a view to extend the minimum duration of copyright in literary works. In Russia, any author or translator of a book has the exclusive property in the work during his life, and his heirs or assigns for twenty-five years subsequent to his decease. In Belgium, the right is conceded to the author during his life, and to his widow and his heirs during their lives; but all right terminates after the death of the first generation of the author's heirs. In the Pontifical States, by an edict dated in 1826, authors and artists have the exclusive right to publish their works during their lives, and their heirs for twelve years after their death. In the United States, by an act of congress, dated in 1831, the copyright, which previously only lasted for fourteen years, was extended to twenty-eight years, with the right to further extension for fourteen years, if the author should survive the first term. In England, by the act of 1814, the copyright in literary works was extended to twenty-eight years, to the author and his assigns; and if at the end of that time the author survive, the copyright is extended for the rest of his life.

SPURIOUS TEA.

The manufacture of tea is carried on to a great extent in Great Britain, and persons often fancy themselves indulging in the luxury of sipping the fragrant decoction of the Chinese herb, when perhaps they are swallowing with gusto the ill-flavored juices of the most common and despised plants in Old England. Imagination is a powerful agent in deceiving even intelligent people.

We find in a late English paper an account of a trial of Edward Glover, on a charge for having in his possession 2000 pounds of fabricated tea. An officer testified that having received a warrant to search the defendant's premises, he and two other persons proceeded there, and discovered an immense quantity of leaves closely resembling China tea. Some of it was in sacks and hampers, and a great portion was lying about for drying, for which purpose the place was fitted up with the necessary stoves and utensils. They immediately gave notice to government of the result of their investigation, and Mr. Bird, the surveying examiner-general of excise, was ordered to make a further examination. Mr. Bird stated he received possession of eight sacks of the rubbish, which was so fine an imitation of tea that at first sight any person would have supposed it to be the genuine article. On testing a sample from each sack, he found the whole to be composed of blackthorn, hawthorn, and fern leaves. Mr. Bird produced eight samples of the stuff, and mixed them with pure tea to the extent of one half of each. Mr. Bird observed that he would convince the bench still further of the extent to which the public was imposed on, and he exhibited various infusions of tea with and without the rubbish, and the appearance was so good that any one was liable to be taken in by it. The court observed that the poor, in particular, must have suffered dreadfully by the vile imitation. Mr. Bird said it had a very great sale among tea-dealers.

It appeared in the course of the trial, that the leaves which so closely approached the appearance of tea were manufactured expressly for being mixed with pure tea, not only to the injury of the revenue, but to the consumers of tea. Mr. Bird was asked how the stuff was sold to the grocers and tea-dealers. He said at the rate of 1s. 6d. per lb., and they retailed it at 4s. and 4s. 6d. per lb. The court, after consulting, ordered the de-

defendant to pay a penalty of £200. The penalties were laid at £1,000. A warrant was issued for the burning of the leaves, and another for the recovery of the penalty. In default of payment, the defendant would suffer imprisonment, with hard labor, for the space of twelve months.

PROGRESS OF THE SUGAR TRADE IN THE UNITED STATES.

The amount of sugar shipped from New Orleans in 1830 was trifling. In 1836 the quantity amounted to 6,461,500 pounds. In 1840 it had increased to 47,005,500 pounds. The amount sent to the interior for the Valley of the Mississippi, we have no means of ascertaining; the quantity, however, must be very considerable. This is more than one fifth of all the sugar made of cane, which is consumed in the United States, as there was about 190,000,000 pounds imported in 1839. Should the manufacture of sugar increase for the next five years as it has done for the last five, we shall make all our own sugar. We paid to foreigners, in 1839, for sugar, the sum of \$9,924,622, which exceeds in value any one article of our exports, except cotton. The shipments of molasses, too, from New Orleans to our eastern cities, has increased in the same proportion, they being, in 1836, only 419,358 gallons; and in 1840, 3,830,400 gallons. In 1839, we imported 23,094,677 gallons, valued at \$4,364,234.

BOSTON ICE TRADE.

There are now sixteen companies in Boston engaged in the business of shipping ice to the East and West Indies, and to New Orleans and other southern ports. The demand for the article is now so great for exportation, that large contracts have been made for it in Worcester county, to be transported to Boston by railroad. They formerly sold their ice in New Orleans at six cents a pound; but now sell it at one cent; and where they made one dollar at selling it at six cents, they now make four dollars by selling it at one cent a pound. When it sold at six cents, none but the wealthy could afford to purchase, but at one cent all classes buy it, so it is sold before much of it is wasted by melting. The ice is sawed by a machine into square blocks, not less than twelve inches thick, and is packed on board the vessels with straw and hay, boxed with thin lumber, made air tight. One of the Boston companies paid last year \$7,000 for the straw and hay they used for packing.

COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE SOUTH.

"The staple productions of the world belong to the south," says the *Macon Telegraph*, "and if she wisely avail herself of the great variety of soil and climate which are in her possession, in a greater degree, we believe, than any other section in the Union, she is destined, ere long, to be the most enterprising and wealthy portion of the confederacy—a mart where men of trade 'will' always 'congregate.' She will deal out to all with a prodigal, nay even with a liberal hand, her valuable and various products, and while benefiting them she will enrich herself. Her cottons are superior to all others, and form a staple basis which will attract capital to her from almost every quarter. Her tobacco is as rich to her as the opium to the east, and will continue to increase in value. Her vineyards may be made as profitable to her as those of Italy and France. Her sugar plantations will soon be more fruitful and profitable than those of the West Indies. Her immense forests in Georgia, Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, will also soon give her a decided ascendancy in the lumber market, and—her silk establishments will, at no remote day, in their works, vie in beauty, durability, and productiveness, with any quarter of the globe, if, indeed, the south does not excel them in the manufacture and cultivation of this valuable fabric.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

OCTOBER, 1841.

ART. I.—RUSSIA, AND HER COMMERCIAL STRENGTH.

POPULATION AND TERRITORY OF RUSSIA—PHYSICAL RESOURCES—MANUFACTURES—COMMERCIAL RESOURCES OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE—COMMERCIAL QUALIFICATIONS OF THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE.

In the spring of 1698, there arrived at Amsterdam a pilgrim from the farthest east, who had placed before him a shrine of a less romantic, though of a more propitious character, than those which are usually the objects of the pilgrim's adoration. As an apprentice in the great ship-building manufactory of the town he enrolled himself, and it was not until he had meted his arm with those of his better drilled competitors, and mastered the trade he had come to learn, that his workman's apron slipped off, and he stood forth in the robes of the Czar of Muscovy. He might have thought, as he looked around him in his week-day labors, on the huge timbers and the unshapen trunks which were dragged into the workshop from the forests of Denmark, of a country that lay stretched in vast and inhospitable masses, in a region to which the most enterprising merchants of Amsterdam had not pierced. He might have laid out, also, at the time when he was collecting the tools which were to build up an arm of the national defence, the plan on which the great empire that was intrusted to his care, was to be hewn and moulded, till it was fitted to take its place in the society of nations. With an ambition more holy than is common among his brother monarchs, he entered upon the task of shaping and knitting together the vast though unwieldy materials that were brought before him; and with a workmanship more rapid than that by which European statesmen are generally distinguished, he suffered not a moment to elapse in which a plank was not smoothed, or a nail driven. The hulk had scarcely lain on the stocks long enough to rest her timbers from the strain which they had undergone, before she was launched into the ocean that was spread before her, in the majesty of her complete attire. Russia is now the strongest, as in a few years she will be the most powerful, among European nations; and while from the immensity of her

frame and the diversity of her climate, she presents capabilities for every species of exertion, she may expect, in the freshness of her youth, to live onward to a period which will place old age at the distance of centuries. As Americans, we stand on a level with her on the platform of nations; from the same century our mutual existence is dated; and from the contiguity of our dominions, and the connection of our trade, we have been joined in a union with her, which will continue to exist when its origin is placed in antiquity. We propose at present to collect from the accounts of travellers who have visited her shores, and from the reports of her own municipal authorities, the data which are laid open of her past growth, and her present condition. The work will be of interest to the theorist, and we may hope, of use to the practical man.

We shall consider at present,

- I. The population and territory of Russia.
- II. The physical resources of Russia.
- III. The manufactures of Russia.
- IV. The commercial resources of the Russian empire.
- V. The commercial qualifications of the Russian people.*

I. *Russia, with regard to its population and territory.*

The following table is made up from the computation of 1829, which is the latest that is, as a whole, on hand. There are returns, however, of single provinces, of a much more recent date, which we will make use of under other heads.

	Area in German sq. miles.	Area in English sq. miles.	Gross Population.	Ratio of Pop. to sq. miles German.	Ratio of pop. to sq. miles English.
I. Russia in Europe.....	73,154	1,281,095	45,801,239	609	34 1.5
A. The Baltic Provinces...	9,023	157,904	3,336,550	370	21 1.7
B. Great Russia.....	43,390	759,325	21,452,000	494	28 3.10
C. Little Russia.....	4,138	73,415	5,674,000	1,371	80 3.5
D. South Russia.....	6,773	118,427	2,801,500	320	12 3.7
E. West Russia	7,537	131,897	8,448,900	1,125	65 1.2
F. Duchy of Poland ..	2,293	40,127	4,088,289	1,894	113 3.10
II. Russia in Asia	270,350	5,721,125	9,150,000	38	2 1.10
A. Duchy of Kasan.....	11,500	201,250	4,200,000	365	18
B. Duchy of Astrachan.....	13,800	231,500	2,100,000	142	8 3.7
C. Caucasian Territory	5,940	103,950	1,948,000	328	12 9.10
D. Siberia	208,000	4,640,000	800,000	3 5.6	1.5
E. Circassia	30,000	525,000	100,000	3 2.5	1.6
F. Russian Asiatic Islands ..	1,110	19,425	2,000	1 3.10	2.25
III. Russia in America	17,500	306,250	50,000	2 6.10	1.8

Of the whole empire, Russia in Europe, though in itself one half of Europe, forms one fifth; the duchy of Poland, one hundred and seventy

* We make use of the first opportunity of expressing our obligations to a work, from which is taken the greater part of the statistics we shall give, as well as the order in which they are thrown: "*Handbuch der Allgemeinen Staatskunde; bei Schubert—Berlin, 1835, 4 Band.*" It has never yet, as far as we can learn, been translated, though it deserves a place on the table of the merchant, as well as in the library of the political economist.

fifths; and Russia in Asia, three fourths. The whole area is more than twice that of all Europe, ($2\frac{1}{2}$ times;) and is nearly one sixth of the entire compass of the earth. Its gross population is one fourth of that of Europe, though of the whole amount its Asiatic territories contribute but one sixth. Throughout Russia in Asia, with the exception of a few of the southwestern provinces, the ratio of population is only one to five miles square, a proportion too small to be of use either for defence or available for cultivation.

II. *The physical resources of Russia.*

1. *Agriculture.* From the great scarcity of labor and the vast amount of unoccupied territory, it is calculated that in the most prosperous provinces, the gross amount of produce is but one half of that of which the soil is naturally capable. Personal labor appendant to the soil has become, therefore, an object of investment more advantageous than the soil itself; and a system of slavery has thus grown up, of a character like that of the old English villenage. The following statement is taken from "*Herrman's Beitrage zur Physick, &c., des Russischen Staates.*"

	<i>Dessetinen.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
Whole area of Russia in Europe . . .	402,100,552=	1,125,881,546
Land covered with wood and brush . .	156,000,000=	436,800,000
Land uncovered	178,000,000=	505,400,000
Land under improvement	61,500,000=	172,200,000
Meadow land capable of improvement .	6,000,000=	16,800,000

The amount of land under improvement is less, therefore, than one sixth of the entire territory.

A table for 1802 rates the gross amount of grain consumed in that year in the European territories, at about 400,000,000 Berlin bushels; which leaves, on an average, including the usual consumption for beer, bread, and the nourishment of cattle, about ten Berlin bushels, or fourteen of our own, to each individual. Hemp and flax are the most profitable and the most cultivated of the natural productions; and they have risen within the last twenty years to a value which has made them an important ingredient in commerce. In the Krimm and in the southern districts of Russia, the vine is cultivated with great success. The quantity of wine raised was estimated in 1825, at more than 500,000 *wedras* annually, (about 1,600,000 of our wine gallons.) In the Ukraine, in Podalia, and on the Volga, tobacco fields have been lately planted to so great an extent, that the yearly crop amounted in 1834 to 300,000 puds, or 12,000,000 lbs. The hop is confined to Poland, West Russia, and Little Russia.

2. *Live stock.* Her immense amount of pasturage has given Russia advantages for the raising of live-stock unequalled in Europe. There is a climate for every grain, and cattle for every climate. In the southeast, the market is so full that single proprietors have been frequently known to own herds to the amount of 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 3,500 head of neat cattle, and 10,000 goats. Reindeer at the north, and horses among the Tartars, form not only the floating capital, but the medium of exchange. The sheep is spread, under various modifications, over the whole territory, and attempts have been in some degree successful to introduce the merino breed. There are no general calculations of the entire stock that can be relied on, though from the fact that the amount of tallow, of hides, of bristles, and of wool annually exported, amounted in

1831 to \$15,000,000, we can form an estimate of the extent to which the commodity from which they are derived is produced.

3. *Mining.* The principal mines are found in Siberia, in Ural, in Altai, and in the Nertscherischen mountains. In the government of *Perm*, where four fifths of the mineral ore is found, more than 180,000 men are employed, together with 200 iron works, more than 1,200 forges, 27 copper smelting houses, 200 ovens, and 12 smelting houses for silver and lead. We give a table of the amount forged from 1704 to 1809 inclusive, together with one for the single year 1810.

	1704 to 1809.		1810 alone.	
	Puds Rus.	Pounds.	Puds Rus.	Pounds.
1. Gold,	1,726½=	69,050	41=	1,640
2. Silver,	61,856 =	2,476,240	1,250=	50,000
3. Copper,	9,820,055 =	392,802,200	202,657=	8,106,280
4. Iron,	671,701,000 =	691,701,000	5,838,957=	233,557,480
5. Lead,	5,324,000 =	212,960,000	50,000=	2,000,000
6. Vitriol,	48,000 =	1,920,000	3,892=	155,680

In the last thirty years the mines have been more actively worked, and with much greater success. In 1821, there were gold mines discovered in the government of Tobolsk, near the Ural mountains, of considerable extent. In 1823, 7,792 men were employed in mining and refining alone, and a little while after the number amounted to 15,000. The sand by itself, without taking into consideration the lumps of pure metal, yields $\frac{1}{10}$ per cent of refined gold. The produce from 1830 to 1834, is thus given:

	Russ. Puds.	Pounds.
1830	355	14,200
1831	359	14,460
1832	364	14,660
1833	341	13,640
1834 (from Jan. to June,) 167		5,680 (half year.)*

The average produce of the five years is about 350 puds, or 14,000 pounds, which is worth, according to Schubert's valuation, 5,145,000 Prussian dollars,† or nearly the whole annual profit of the Brazilian mines.

Of platina there were produced from June, 1824, to January, 1834, about 678 puds, (27,120 pounds,) out of which 476 puds (19,040 pounds) pure metal were extracted, and from which 400 puds (16,000 pounds) were thrown into bars, which brought in the market 8,186,620 silver rub., (about 6,300,000 Prussian dollars.) The profits of the three years following were equal to an average of 110 puds, or 4,400 pounds a year, yielding an annual revenue of 369,000 Prussian dollars.

The silver mines have remained almost stationary since 1810. The yearly profit varies between 1,225 and 1,300 puds, and if we take the average of 1,260 puds, (50,400 pounds,) the actual value may be placed at about 1,234,000 Prussian dollars.

The amount of copper produced between 1810 and 1830, averaged at about 265,000 puds, (10,600,000 pounds.) As the principal copper mines are in the hands of the crown, it reaps whatever revenue they are

* Das Russische Reich,—Erster Band,—s. 220.

† The Prussian (convention) dollar is rated at 97 cts. 2 d.

capable of, and in 1823, according to a report then published, received 250,000 puds or 10,000,000 pounds of the pure metal, equal in value to nearly 2,650,000 Prussian dollars.

In the mountains both of European Russia and Poland, iron is very abundant. From 1829 to 1835, the average produce was 9,000,000 puds or 360,000,000 pounds, of an annual value of 12,000,000 Prussian dollars. An official statement of the trade in the ten years between 1824 and 1834, makes the yearly value of the exports of raw iron and copper to be equal to 2,850,000 Prussian dollars.

The salt mines of Russia and of the duchy of Poland form their great natural staple. In 1810, in Russia proper alone, the amount produced was equal to 26,538,000 puds, (1,061,520,000 pounds.) In 1835 it had arisen to 30,000,000 puds, (1,200,000,000 pounds,) being worth about 16,600,000 Prussian dollars.

The following table, then, of the mineral produce and its value, may be thus made up.

	Average produce from 1830 to 1835.		Value.
	Puds.	Pounds.	Prussian dollars.
Gold	350=	14,000	5,145,000
Platina	110=	4,400	369,000
Silver	1,260=	50,000	1,234,000
Copper . (1823) .	250,000=	10,000,000	2,650,000
Iron	9,000,000=	300,000,000	12,000,000
Salt . . (1835) .	30,000,000=	1,200,000,000	16,600,000

Total value, 37,998,000

III. *The manufacturing resources of Russia.*

Russian industry has kept pace in its advancement with the government, to whose support it so powerfully contributes. In the temporary halts or the temporary retrogressions which were suffered by the body politic during the reigns of Paul and Alexander, the productive industry of the nation was proportionally checked and retarded. To throw the empire into the form of a great universal manufactory, was the cardinal design of Peter the Great; and to link inseparably the working classes with the government, to dispense with the interference of an aristocracy under any of its phases, has been the policy of himself and his successors. The master workman stood at the centre of the machinery, and directed without appeal and without opposition the most trifling workings of the wheels around him. Overseers and slaves were placed by him on an equal level. He was the chief engineer, and as the whole responsibility rested on his shoulders, he felt it proper that he should wield the whole authority. Such a station requires, it is true, the most consummate experience, and the most unwavering decision. It has been the good fortune of the Russian monarchs, since Peter the Great, whatever might be the degree in which they possessed the first qualification, to be by no means deficient in the second. A history of their commercial enterprises, is a history of the commerce of their country itself, so completely have they secured within their hands the control of the actual energies of the realm. We shall run over the measures which have been successively taken by the government, for the support of its manufacturing resources, as the best account that can be given of the progress of the manufactures themselves.

Ivan I. and Ivan II., under whose reigns Russia asserted her claims to be considered as an independent nation, were the earliest among the czars who directed their attention to the productive capacity of their country. Workmen and artists were called from Germany, from the Netherlands, and from Italy, to inoculate, in the deserts of Russia, the spirit of industry which had made their homes the armory as well as the orchards of Europe. In Moscow, in Jaroslaw, in Pskow, in Smolensk, and in Kiew, there were established manufactories for cloth, linen, and arms, and even for heavy silks and gold lace. But through the civil war that was fomented by the ambition of the house of Romanow, and by the incursions of the neighboring powers of Sweden and Poland, the progress both of foreign trade and manufactures was stopped. Till the accession of Peter the Great, in the close of the seventeenth-century, the nation was employed exclusively in efforts to regain the station among the states of the north which it had lost by its domestic dissensions. Peter the Great, by laying the foundation for the manufacturing resources of the empire, took the true step for its political elevation. He had witnessed, during the pilgrimage which in his early life he had passed through, the prosperity and vigor of the commercial nations of Europe, and the decay of those who had neglected either to foster their own productions, or to exchange them with those of others ; he had seen that the body politic, when its arteries are choked, and its veins are opened, and its muscles are suffered to become languid through inaction, loses its vigor and becomes the prey of inward corruption and outward attack. In the wisdom which so significant a lesson had pressed on his mind, and with the decision which was so intimately knit in his constitution, he determined to use the first moment of power in transplanting, in his own soil, the seed that had been so fruitful in others. The foreign workmen who were brought by his invitation within the state, were endowed at once with peculiar privileges and immunities, were excepted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary civil and military tribunals, and were chartered as a company which was to be placed under the immediate protection of the senate. In Tula, in Potrosawodsk, and in Sestradeck, there were founded manufactories for arms of every description, from the heaviest cannon to the slightest pistols and dirks. Powder-mills and saw-mills of all orders were built in the neighborhood of the two principal cities. In 1720, there was erected in Moscow the great imperial manufactories for woollen goods and linen ; while at St. Petersburg, and in its vicinity, immense factories were founded for the preparation of mirrors and other costly glass wares, carpets, cotton-goods, and sugar. By the death of Peter the Great, twenty-one great imperial manufactories, and a great number of smaller dimensions, had been founded at the entire cost of the government.

The immediate successor of Peter, in order to raise the revenues by means of customhouse impositions, turned the patronage of the state rather to the encouragement of foreign than of domestic industry. It was under the reign of Elizabeth that the policy of her great predecessor was revived ; and at the time of her death the number of manufactories in the empire amounted to five hundred and two, of which twenty-six, with twelve hundred workmen, were for silken stuffs, seventy-six for cloth, eighty-eight for linen, and thirty for cotton. Catherine II. employed herself still more actively in the promotion of internal trade, and added in a great degree thereto by the foundation of a number of smaller institutions which

were exempted from the evils which were inherent to those on a more exaggerated scale. During her reign of thirty-four years, the actual amount of the factories was tripled. The same maxims were carried out both under Paul and Alexander, so that in the year 1812, at the time of the French invasion, the sum total had increased to 2,332, in which were employed 119,093 workmen, (64,041 free, 31,160 crown slaves, and 27,292 private slaves;) and in 1820 it arose to 3,724 factories, the annual value of whose produce was estimated at about 37,000,000 Prussian dollars.*

The following table of the relative condition of the various manufactures is compiled from the report of 1828.

1. *Linen.* The number of linen manufactories of the larger class was equal to two hundred and ten, in which about 9,900,000 yards (21,500,000 *Berlin ells*) of stuff are yearly produced. The site of the principal manufactories is in West Russia, Little Russia, and Moscow.

2. *Cloth.* The manufacture of wool, in its various modifications, has been an object at all times of great concern. As late as the reign of Catherine II. the whole army was clothed in English fabrics, and even under the reign of Alexander, the home productions were not sufficiently advanced to be exclusively made use of, even under government direction. The demand for coarse and ordinary cloth, also, for the purposes of the Chinese trade, was becoming pressing; and the consequence was that from one hundred and eighty-one, which covered in 1820 the number of the cloth factories, they increased in 1820 to four hundred. 330,000 yards of coarse cloth, and 266,000 yards of fine cloth, cassimere, and flannel were, between 1825 and 1828, annually brought to market. The finer cloths, however, are by no means equal to the domestic demand; and ever since 1825, the yearly import of foreign cloth has amounted to from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 Prussian dollars.

3. *Cotton.* The cotton manufactories amounted in 1828 to five hundred and twenty-one, which produced annually about 40,000,000 yards of all qualities. Besides the amount brought in from Georgia and the neighboring provinces, raw cotton to the value of 10,000,000 Prussian dollars is annually imported, which is manufactured into goods which sell at about 30,000,000 Prussian dollars. Since 1830 it is estimated that on an average more than 1,500,000 Prussian dollars of cotton goods already made up have been yearly introduced.

4. *Silk.* The silk manufactories are contained principally in the three chief cities. They have risen between 1820 to 1828 from one hundred and fifty-six to one hundred and ninety-eight in number, and consume of a yearly import of the raw material of the value of 1,400,000 Prussian dollars. The yearly worth of their products from 1825 to 1830, averaged at near 3,000,000 Prussian dollars.

5. *Metal-ware.* Through the great riches of the Russian mines, the metal-ware manufactories form one of the distinguishing features of the productive industry of the empire. In 1820 there were as many as two hundred and fifty-eight factories, of which fifty-one were for brass, and in 1828 there were two hundred and ninety-one factories, of which one hundred and eighty-two were for tools and steel ware. In the imperial fac-

* W. C. Friebe über Russlands Handel, Industrie und rohe Producte-Schuberts Allgemeine Staatskunde, I. 224-7.

tory at Tula, there are upwards of 7,000 workmen employed, and the annual production between 1825 and 1830 was equal to 70,000 muskets, pistols, and sabres.

6. *Glass and clay.* One hundred and sixty-six manufactories were occupied in 1828 in the preparation of glass and crystal in their various modifications, which afforded yearly upwards of 15,000,000 bottles, 80,000 baskets of table glass, together with glass ware of the finer description in considerable quantities. The porcelain works amount to twenty-one.*

7. *Leather.* The leather manufactories are the most ancient in the Russian empire. Russian hides formed a subject of trade as far back as the middle ages, and the czars in the most uncivilized eras broke through their usual principles in furthering the production of a commodity on which their military grandeur so much depended. In 1820 there were about 1,406 leather factories, which increased in 1828, with the inclusion of Poland, to 1,930, in which over 3,500,000 hides were each year dressed and prepared. The export of hides and leather in its different forms between 1828 and 1830, has averaged between 2,400,000 and 3,000,000 Prussian dollars.

8. *Soap, Tallow, and Wax,* from the great supply of their component materials, form a principal staple in the domestic trade. Two hundred potash manufactories yield yearly over 2,000,000lbs., of which amount to the worth of 1,000,000 Prussian dollars are annually exported. In seven hundred soap manufactories 80,000,000lbs., which are annually produced, are not only sufficient to meet the great domestic demand, but yield about \$800,000 annually in exports. About 16,000,000lbs. of tallow are yearly consumed by three hundred candle manufactories, though there was still remaining, between 1825 and 1830, enough of the raw material to be valued, when thrown into the foreign trade, at \$13,000,000.

9. *Sugar.* In 1827 there were thirty-nine sugar refineries in the empire, which produced 39,000,000lbs. sugar, and 1,006,440lbs. syrup. The importation in 1829 of raw sugar was valued at about 11,890,000 Prussian dollars,† though in 1832 it was diminished one fifth. The preparation of sugar from the beet root is carried on in the governments of Saratow and Orel.

10. *Brandy.* The principal brandy distilleries are in the hands of the crown, and reached in 1825 to twenty-five in number. The private distilleries are as many as 23,315, but from the great limitations which are

* The largest mirror in the world, as it is rated by Schubert, was built in the Imperial Glass Works. Its dimensions are 150 inches in height, and from 90 to 96 in breadth.

† We have rated, so far, the Prussian dollar, from which our calculations have been reduced, at the convention valuation of 70 cents. Such appears to be the valuation assumed by the tables from which we have quoted, although, as the coin is extremely variable, it is difficult to hit upon a standard that will be uniformly intelligible. The ruble is still more uncertain, as it ranges in exchange from 84 to 37 cents. The silver ruble, however, was fixed by an ukase of 1829 at 360 copecks, and is stated by Mr. McCulloch to average on exchange at 3s. 2½d. The paper or bank ruble, which is the standard of account, is fixed by an ukase of 1811 at 100 copecks, and we can reduce therefore its value in American coin, to 21cts. 5d. In the following pages, we will make use, exclusively, of the valuation thus given.

laid on them by the imperial monopoly, their business is subject to considerable drawbacks. In 1801 there were produced 601,920,000 *gall.*, of which one sixteenth from the crown, and fifteen sixteenths from private distilleries, and which consumed one ninth of the crop of grain of the season. There are no data on hand by which we can estimate the produce of succeeding years, though from the fact that the taxes on its consumption doubled in the 24 years ending at the close of the reign of Alexander without any alteration in their comparative value, we can infer that its manufacture had greatly increased. There were employed in 1827, without taking into account the number engaged in the various manufactures above mentioned, upwards of 702,652 workmen in the simpler branches of trade. It is in these, indeed, that the strength of the Russian empire consists. Great factories, while from the extended division of labor which they afford, and from the vast quantity of power which they bring to bear on a given point, they are the best calculated for the immediate concerns of trade, are by no means congenial to the genius of a government whose policy it is to crush the strength of its subjects by dealing with them singly. The little grains, the slight particles of sulphur, of charcoal, and nitre, which would remain in the most complete inactivity were they kept by themselves; when they are heaped together require a spark of incendiarism alone to ripen them to explosion. The Russian serf might catch the contagious disease which has lifted the crest and nerved the spirit of the working men of every other European nation, were he to be placed in a crowd and be allowed to mingle his own injuries with the common wrong, and to assume the common wrong for his own. Wo to the cumbrous pillars of the giant empire, should he seize them with his arms when his strength has been invigorated by communion! The practised eye of Peter the Great saw that the secret by which the elements were to be chained was *disunion*; that if they should unite and direct their efforts against the cave in which his ancestors had chained them, they would shatter it in the blow, and that to preserve the equilibrium entire, each ingredient force must be cut out from the system in which it is imbedded, and be spread by itself in a strand in which it would cease to be affected by the sympathy of others. He was to form an empire which was to be a monster in the economy of nature; and by the dissection of the old establishment, and by the piling together of its members in a posture in which the mutual action which naturally existed between them would be lost, he accomplished the grand object of his ambition. There were to be no interior arteries, no intimate reticulation of nerves, no complex commingling of fibres, in the body politic. The riot act was to forestall tumult, and not to intercept it. Those great civil societies in which, in our country, society collects its wandering humors, were eradicated from the system which the Russian emperor produced. If it was expedient that some great factory should be established for the prosecution of a cardinal branch of trade, or that an army of laborers should be collected to carry out a national enterprise, the workmen were marched up as culprits to execution, and watched as prisoners at the dock. So complicated a process brought upon the government expenses which it would willingly have spared, and cares which aggravated to a point almost unsupportable its official duties; but the process, however complicated, was necessary to the scheme which it was to effectuate. Great as has been the progress of Russia in her domestic manufactures, it would have been still greater had it not been for the drawback which it received from

the fact that the workmen are under the guard of the military, and the military of a secret police.

IV. *The commercial resources of the Russian empire.**

From the indefatigable exertions of Peter the Great, the commerce of Russia received not only its first impulse, but its entire direction. He opened for the first time the harbors of the Baltic and the Black Sea. In his political dealings with the remotest nations, he kept constantly in view the object to which his early education had been directed, and which, to the last moment of his life, was paramount in his thoughts. Shipbuilding had been the occupation of his apprenticeship, and as long as he retained the sceptre, shipbuilding, though on a much grander scale, was his amusement and his study. Catherine II. enjoyed, during her restless reign, the advantages which had been laid down by her great ancestor, and as, in the prosecution of her ambitious schemes, she found her treasury and her armories filled by the taxes and the tithes of the foreign commerce, she entered with fresh zeal on the prosecution of an enterprise so congenial both to revenue and to comfort. We can find the results of her summary diplomacy in the commercial treaty with Denmark in 1782, with Persia in 1784, with Austria in 1785, with Naples, Sicily, and Portugal in 1787, with the Porte in 1792, and with England in 1798. The Imperial-Assignment-Bank was chartered by her, with the purpose of extending the circulation, in 1768, and was assisted with the entire credit of the state. Even under the reign of Paul, whose foreign policy was so wavering and disastrous, the interests of trade were prosecuted with unabated vigor; and in his administration were founded the discount offices in 1797, the insurance offices in 1798, the Imperial-Mortgage-Bank in 1797. In 1799, after a survey of his dominions in North America, he was induced to take under his protection the Russia American Trading Company, with a capital of 2,750,000 rub. pap., (about \$550,000,) in 5,500 shares.

Through the attention of the Emperor Nicholas, an impulse still stronger has been given to Russian trade. The Imperial-Discount-Bank, (*die Reichsleihbank*), founded in 1803, produced a salutary influence on the general exchange of the country; and in 1818, still greater assistance was obtained by the enlargement of the Bank of Commerce, whose notes were based on governmental credit, and were received throughout the empire in payment of treasury dues. Its circulation in 1823, was over \$39,487,000†. A company for the herring fisheries of the White Sea, was chartered in 1825, which was endowed with privileges well calculated to secure the important object to which it was directed; and,

* The tables which we present of Russian commerce, are taken originally from the Annual Register of A. V. Richter, (1 Heft. 5. s. 443-62,) and from Schubert's Statistik, vol. 1., p. 232, which profess to be based on the official reports of the Russian government.

† We cite the amount of Russian banking-capital as an evidence of commercial enterprise, and not as a test of commercial prosperity. As paper-money, it may be remembered, however, is secured from depreciation in Russia by the assistance of the credit of the state, it is more oppressive to the people in general, though less detrimental to trade, than it would be in a country where it is liable to the depredations of bankruptcy, the shocks of speculation, and the pilfering of embezzlement.

in the same year, schools were founded in St. Petersburg, Riga, Odessa, Archangel, Kholmogory, and Irkutsk, both as nurseries for the merchant service, and as seminaries for the more important trades. The conquest of Poland, fatal as it was both to the existence of the conquered country, and the reputation of the conqueror, brought into the Russian custom-houses, not only the entire commerce of the dependent state, but that which, under her previous independence, she had carried on with others. The Emperor Nicholas had followed out the course of his predecessors, by the commercial treaties with Persia and Turkey, in 1828 and 1829. The internal trade has been stirred up to a fresh vigor, by the new water communications which he has opened through the interior of the state, and the high-roads which have been stretched over it. The waves of those mighty rivers which fall downward on the continent, from the immense trunk of the Arctic, like roots which are struggling to carry back to the frozen zone, from which they come, nourishment from the rich soil into which they are extended,—the waves of the great northern rivers, and the icy fields of the seas to which they belong, have been ruffled and carved open by the rapid march of steam-ships which have been sent from the workshops of the south, and in some cases from the factories of our own country, to open in latitudes which before had been impenetrable a trade which will lead them before long to participate in the civilization, if not the climate, of more temperate degrees. Of the entire foreign trade, St. Petersburg possesses one half, Riga one eighth, and Odessa one twelfth. Of the exports, one tenth pass over the western boundaries by land, more than three fifths through the Baltic ports, one fortieth over the White Sea, an eighth over the Black Sea, an hundred and thirtieth over the Caspian, one fourteenth over the Asiatic limits, and an eightieth to the east, south, and west, by internal routes through Moscow.

The following table is made up from the official reports :

	Rub. paper.	
Entire importation of goods from 1814 to 1824.....	1,646,904,710	= \$354,084,512
Making on a yearly average.....	164,690,471	= 35,408,451
Entire importation of goods from 1824 to 1834.....	1,951,844,619	= 419,646,593
Making on a yearly average.....	195,184,461	= 41,964,659
Increase between the imports of the ten years from 1814 to 1824, and the ten years from 1824 to 1834, }	... 304,939,909	= 65,562,081
Average yearly increase on the same	30,493,990	= 6,556,208

The imports in thirty years, between 1801–3 and 1831–3, had doubled, being on the average taken for 1801–3 about \$20,000,000, and in the average taken for 1831–3 about \$41,500,000.

The exports of goods between 1814 and 1834 are thus given :

	Rub. pap.	
For the ten years 1814 to 1824.....	2,181,894,424	= \$469,107,301
Making on a yearly average.....	218,189,442	= 46,910,730
For the ten years 1824 to 1834.....	2,307,399,005	= 496,090,786
Making on a yearly average.....	230,739,900	= 49,609,078
Increase between the exports of the ten years from 1814 to 1824, and the ten years from 1824 to 1834, }	... 125,504,581	= 26,983,484
Average yearly increase on the same.....	12,550,458	= 2,698,348

The ratio of increase with exports from the commencement of the present century has been the same as with imports, since it has risen within

thirty years from about \$20,000,000 to \$42,000,000 on a yearly average. The exports, however, have suffered far greater variations than the imports, since the latter is regulated by the government standard, and the former are affected by every vicissitude in the trade or the taste of foreign nations whose dealings are not shaped by so severe a rule. We see that in 1825 the exports had arrived at nearly \$48,872,000; but by pursuing the official tables still further, we will find they had retreated in 1827 to \$47,354,000, and in 1828 to as low as \$40,000,000. Taking a sudden rise, they arrived in 1829 to \$44,000,000, and in 1830 to \$54,800,000. In the following year they fell back to \$49,266,000, and mounted again in 1832 to \$52,500,000. The fluctuation of the exports is therefore eight times greater than that of the imports, and extends from 1 to \$4,700,000. The increase in the value of the exports between 1824 and 1834 is by no means as great as that of the imports within the same period; which may be ascribed in some measure to the circumstance that the growing demands of domestic industry require a greater supply of foreign raw commodities for manufacture than can be balanced by domestic production alone. The relation between imports and exports with regard to the channel through which they are carried, is the same; since one eighth of the goods that form the subject of the calculations we have been giving, are brought in and out through land, while seven eighths come by sea carriage.

We proceed to consider the extent of the trade in the precious metals, which is separated in the official report from that of the remaining articles of commerce. The following statement completes the tables of the entire imports of Russia from 1814 to 1834.

Importation of Precious Metals.

	Rub. pap.	
For the ten years from 1814 to 1824 . . .	321,969,988	= \$69,223,546
Making on a yearly average	32,196,998	= 6,922,354
For the ten years from 1824 to 1834 . . .	322,136,144	= 69,259,271
Making on a yearly average	32,213,614	= 6,925,927

Exportation of Precious Metals.

	Rub. pap.	
For the ten years from 1814 to 1824 . . .	60,982,229	= \$13,111,179
Making on a yearly average	6,098,222	= 1,311,117
For the ten years from 1824 to 1834 . . .	59,306,701	= 12,750,941
Making on a yearly average	5,930,670	= 1,275,094

The excess, therefore, of the imports of gold and silver over the exports is as follows :

	Rub. pap.	
For the ten years from 1814 to 1824 . . .	260,987,759	= \$56,112,368
For the ten years from 1824 to 1834 . . .	262,829,443	= 56,512,510

If we take into consideration the whole Russian trade, including the precious metals in the sum total, we will find that the balance of exports over imports from 1814 to 1824,

	Rub. pap.	
is equal to	534,089,714	= \$114,829,289
Making on an average for each year . .	53,408,971	= 11,482,928
From 1824 to 1834 the balance was . .	355,554,386	= 77,444,193
Making on an average for each year . .	35,555,438	= 7,744,419

The balance of the exports over the imports of marketable commodities is becoming every year more nearly compensated by the balance of the imports over the exports of gold and silver; though it is worthy of consideration that a large proportion of the precious metals imported consist in the tributes of eastern nations. The Turks alone, between 1824 and 1834, paid on an average \$5,000,000 a year to the Russian treasury.*

The foreign commerce of Russia for the single year 1834 is thus reduced from the statement given by Mr. McCulloch. (Com. Dic. II. 294.)

Exports.

	By European Frontier.		By Asiatic Frontier.		Total.	
	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.
Articles for cons'pt'n,	8,636,951	1,857,949	1,159,366	249,264	9,796,317	2,106,208
“ for manufacture,	170,023,836	36,555,125	8,990,250	857,904	174,014,186	87,413,050
“ manufactured,	13,901,286	2,988,767	8,407,755	1,807,667	22,309,023	4,796,440
Sundries,	7,264,243	1,551,814	8,938,777	846,837	11,203,020	2,408,649
Gold and Silver,	8,192,498	1,760,377	453,905	97,590	8,646,393	1,858,974
Value per price curr't,	208,018,786	44,724,039	17,950,053	3,859,261	225,968,839	48,583,310
Value per declarat'n,	222,441,648	47,813,964	17,950,053	3,859,261	240,391,701	51,684,216
Average value,	215,230,217	46,274,497	17,950,053	3,859,261	233,180,270	50,133,768

Imports.

	By European Frontier.		By Asiatic Frontier.		Total.	
	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.	Rub. Pap.	Dollars.
Articles for cons'pt'n,	66,257,318	14,245,540	7,902,731	1,599,097	74,160,044	15,844,637
“ for manufacture,	92,937,637	19,981,592	8,187,295	665,317	96,124,932	20,665,909
“ manufactured,	26,978,001	5,800,270	5,694,142	1,224,240	32,672,143	7,024,510
Sundries,	6,318,523	1,358,482	5,048,988	1,075,532	11,367,511	2,434,014
Gold and Silver,	18,890,898	4,061,532	1,035,201	223,318	19,976,099	4,384,850
Confiscated Goods,	451,848	97,137	36,277	7,310	488,125	104,947
Value per price curr't,	211,834,220	45,554,553	22,954,634	4,815,414	234,788,854	50,369,967
Excess of Imports over Exports,					8,820,015	1,863,308
Value per declarat'n,	242,464,834	52,129,950	22,954,634	4,815,414	265,419,518	56,945,364
Excess of Imports over Exports,					25,027,817	5,380,991
Average value,	227,149,552	48,837,154	22,954,634	4,815,414	250,140,186	58,652,568
Excess of Imports over Exports,					18,923,916	3,638,622

The number of vessels sailing from the thirty-six Russian harbors, at various periods within the ten years from 1814 to 1824, is reported as 39,623, or on a yearly average, 3,962. In the ten years from 1824 to 1834, it arose to 45,577, or on a yearly average, 4,557; being an average increase of 395 on the preceding ten years. The number of vessels *visiting* the thirty-six harbors between 1814 and 1824, is given as 40,321, or in a yearly average, 4,032; while in the succeeding ten years it amounted to 45,234, being on a yearly average 4,523, or 492 ships more than in the average of the preceding ten years. But the increase, distinct as it is, is far greater in fact than it would appear by the report we have given; since the most of the vessels taken into computation within the ten years from 1824 to 1834, were bound on foreign voyages, with great tonnage, which is far from being the case (as to the tonnage at least) with those of the former period. In 1825, 4,263 vessels entered the Russian harbors, while 4,228 passed out; in 1829, 4,488 entered, and 4,562 passed out; in 1830, 5,809 entered, (of which 3,550 were laden with bal-

* Schubert's Statistic, I. 235-6.

last, and 2,089 with goods,) and 6,128 passed out; in 1831, 5,577 entered, (of which 3,550 were laden with ballast, and 2,287 with goods,) and 5,715 passed out; and in 1832, 5,720 vessels entered, (of which 3,433 were laden with ballast, and 2,287 with goods*,) and 5,721 passed out. While on the one hand, two-fifths only of the vessels entering are laden with goods, and the rest come in ballasted for the purpose of bringing away Russian productions, of the vessels that pass out, on the other hand, only one twentieth are unfreighted, and the remainder are crowded with the commodities which they come to obtain. To the friend of a high tariff, such a condition must seem Arcadian; but it is worthy of remark, as affording a distinct objection to the reasoning by which a tariff is advocated, that in the provinces in whose favor the balance of trade is most strong, who export most and import least, the people are the most starved and the least clothed, and the country itself is most deprived of the muscles of strength and the marrow of comfort.

Of the vessels which we have taken into computation, one third are English, one seventh Russian, one fourteenth Swedish, one fourteenth from the Netherlands, one fifty-one part Russian, one fifteenth Danish, one fifteenth Italian, one twentieth Austrian, one twentieth from Mecklenburg and the Hans Towns, one twentieth Turkish, one fiftieth French, and one hundredth from the United States. There are besides from 2,500 to 3,500 smaller craft in constant employment on the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azof, and from 700 to 850 on the Baltic.

We proceed to examine the extent of the trade which is carried on with Russia by the principal commercial nations of Europe, making use of the average of the years 1827-32, for the basis of our calculations. England draws off one half of the Russian exports to the amount of 115,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$24,725,000,) and makes up only one third of the imports in return, or about 65,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$14,000,000.) Turkey takes yearly 21,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$4,500,000,) and returns 12,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$2,370,000.) Prussia receives annually 17,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$3,655,000,) and returns about 7,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$1,355,000.) Denmark takes yearly 16,600,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$3,330,000,) and returns about 4,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$860,000.) Austria both imports and exports 13,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$2,655,000.) The Netherlands receive yearly about 12,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$2,370,000,) and return 5,500,000 *rub. pap.* (\$1,150,000.) France receives yearly 2,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$430,000,) and returns 12,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$3,370,000.) The Hans Towns receive yearly 28,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$5,650,000,) and return 7,500,000 *rub. pap.* (1,612,500.) The Italian States receive yearly 10,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$2,150,000,) and return about 2,500,000 *rub. pap.* (\$537,500.)

The trade between the United States and Russia would seem, on the principle that wherever the amount of a country's imports exceeds its exports, the balance is against it, to be the most injurious to the latter state of any in which it is engaged. The American imports into the Russian ports, on the average taken of the five years 1827-32, exceed 20,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$4,300,000,) while the corresponding exports reach only to 8,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$1,720,000.) Both parties, however, appear to be

* We use the word *goods* in its widest sense, as a translation of the German "*Waaren*." It is taken to express all marketable commodities whatever, with the exception of the precious metals.

contented with their position ; Russia, because she receives at the cheapest market rates raw commodities indispensable to her manufactories, and the United States, because they obtain in a less degree, though not at less advantage, manufactures which a country less varied in its climate and peculiar in its physical characteristics would be unable to afford them.*

Russia has for some time taken up a large portion of the carrying trade between the European and the Asiatic commercial nations, and her imports, in consequence, from her eastern neighbors, have arisen to an amount which her individual consumption would be unable to explain. Her exports into the Asiatic continent, in the average between 1814-34, reached to about a fourteenth part of her entire exportation, being equal to 19,000,000 *rub. pap.* (\$4,200,000.) In 1829, they amounted to 22,500,000 *rub. pap.* ; they fell in the next year to 17,800,000 *rub. pap.*, remained both for 1831-32 at about 18,500,000 *rub. pap.*, and arose in 1833 to 17,949,185 *rub. pap.*, (\$3,849,075,) of which 7,333,151 *rub. pap.* were directed to China, 4,625,338 *rub. pap.* to the Kirghises, and 2,960,580 *rub. pap.* to Persia. The imports from Asia to the Russian empire amounted in 1827 to 24,500,000 *rub. pap.*, in 1828 to 26,200,000 *rub. pap.*, in 1829-30 to 25,000,000 each, in 1831-32, with a little variation, to 22,000,000, and in 1833 to 23,113,701 *rub. pap.*, being on a yearly average, 24,000,000 *rub. pap.*, or \$5,100,000 of the entire imports ; one-third (8,000,000 *rub. pap.*) consists of articles of consumption, especially tea ; about 9,000,000 *rub. pap.* for manufactures of various kinds ; about 5,000,000 for raw stuffs, and nearly 1,000,000 for gold and silver. Of the whole imports, one third come from China, and about one-sixth from the Kirghises.*

Notwithstanding the small amount of the entire imports of the empire, when we consider its gigantic size, and its large population, there is no nation of which we can keep an accurate account, on which the taxes on importations are so great. The ancient czars drew their feudal tributes from the food and the clothing which their subjects imported from foreign countries on account of the poverty of their own ; and so strong and so

* The following table exhibits the extent of the United States trade with Russia, between 1821 and 1838.

		Exports.			Exports.
1821	99	\$628,894	1830	99	\$416,574
1822	28	529,081	1831	28	462,766
1823	77	648,734	1832	52	582,682
1824	63	231,981	1833	50	703,805
1825	10	267,401	1834	III	330,694
1826	III	174,648	1835	45	585,447
1827	77	362,244	1836	54	911,013
1828	62	450,495	1837	III	1,306,732
1829	95	386,226	1838	89	854,771

It will be seen that there is considerable discrepancy between the statements thus given, and those which we have already cited. The table in this note is taken from the London Bankers' Circular, given in Hazard's Register, iii. 183. That in the text, being deduced from the official report of the Russian government, may be thought most worthy of credit.

* It is said by Mr. McCulloch, that the iron and furs of Siberia, and the teas of China, occupy three years on their passage to St. Petersburg.

minute are the meshes of the net which the modern emperors have stretched across their harbors, that of most of the articles that slip through, the fairest part of the substance is taken. From the Dardanelles, the gulf of Finland, and the Volga, through whose huge channels a cubic mile of water has been said daily to pass—from the vast aqueducts which open on the Caspian, the Black Sea, and the Baltic, to the slightest rivulet which is swallowed in the sands of Astrachan, or freezes on the rocks of Lapland—there is not a stream whose waters are not stilled, and whose freight intercepted, by the flood-gates which are to stop short the truant merchandise. One third of the value of the entire importation, and nearly one fifth of importation and exportation together, are detained before the rest can pass through; while in the remaining nations of Europe, which can certainly not be called too lax in collecting so important a branch of their revenue, the average is only one to six, and with both imports and exports, one to eleven. The taxes from duties, during the two periods of ten years which we have already several times made use of, are thus reported.

Rub. Pap.

In 1814–24	396,126,285	about	\$85,497,258
In a yearly average	39,612,628	“	8,549,725
In 1824–34	673,339,401	“	145,329,086
In a yearly average	67,333,940	“	14,532,908

Being an increase in the last ten years over the first of 277,213,166 *rub. pap.*, (\$59,831,828;) or in a yearly average, 27,721,316 *rub. pap.*, (\$5,983,182.)

It may easily be imagined that under a system of duties so immense, smuggling is both lucrative and general. Over a frontier so extended as that of the entire empire, there must be points which are unwatched; while in the attempt to watch them, a sum of money is expended which requires a fresh revenue to support it. Between 1814 and 1824, there were goods confiscated to the amount of 3,353,665 *rub. pap.*; and in the following ten years the amount rose to 6,243,668 *rub. pap.*; or about \$1,348,299. “We must conclude therefrom,” says Schubert after reviewing the facts we have cited, “not that smuggling is diminished, on account of the greater success of the guard that is held over it, but that on the contrary it has vastly increased, and the increase of the smuggled goods that are confiscated may be taken as indication of the rapid strides which in twenty years it has made.”—Schubert’s Statistik, I., 242.

Raw Sugar, among the articles of importation, stands the highest. The quantity imported was valued in 1827 at 28,800,000 *rub. pap.*; in 1828 at 33,000,000; in 1829 at 38,000,000; in 1830 at 33,000,000; in 1831 at 24,600,000; and consequently, at a yearly average of 32,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$6,880,000,) or about one sixth of all the imports together. Its consumption has been multiplied sixty times since the beginning of the present century.

Coffee, of which a quantity is annually imported equal to about one sixth of that of sugar, was at its highest pitch in 1825, at 6,769,147 *rub. pap.*, but fell on the average taken between 1827 and 1834, to 5,000,000 *rub. pap.* in value.

Raw Cotton, in its natural shape, or as yarn, whether raw or spun, ranks next to sugar in the list, and stands as nearly one sixth of the sum

of the entire importations. The value of the amount received between 1827 and 1832, averages at 31,000,000 *rub. pap.*, and was at its highest pitch in 1829, when it was imported to the value of 38,500,000 *rub. pap.* Since 1805, it has increased 5,000 per cent. As the domestic manufacture of cotton has improved, the cotton goods imported have diminished in quantity one half.

Coloring stuffs, of which indigo constitutes a third, were imported between 1827 and 1832, at an average worth of 20,000,000 *rub. pap.*, and ranks at about one tenth of the entire importation.

The average of *silk goods* imported in the last 20 years, is rated at 9,000,000 *rub. pap.*

The importation of *woollen goods* has considerably waned since 1820, since for that year its value was equal to 22,300,000 *rub. pap.*; and in the average between 1827 and 1832 at about 7,500,000 *rub. pap.*

Wine has remained constant since 1825 at 11,000,000 *rub. pap.*, of which all, with but slight exceptions, is French, and one fourth is champagne.

The yearly importation of *Tea*, may be taken between 1825 and 1835 at an average of 5,600,000 *rub. pap.*

Tobacco, since 1825, is estimated at 2,750,000 *rub.* in yearly value, and *Lead* at 1,500,000.

The principal articles of exportation are raw commodities which in Russia alone are produced to excellence. *Flax* and *Hemp*, in their manufactured shape, or in the shape of seed, expressed oil, or made up into coarse stuffs, sail-cloth, or ropes, constitute one third of Russian exports, and form in themselves goods which are indispensable to every commercial nation. The amount in which they are exported, when taken at an average between 1825 and 1835, reaches 80,000,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$17,200,000;) of which hemp-seed and flax-seed are rated at 13,500,000 *rub. pap.*, oil drawn from both the two commodities at 3,000,000 *rub. pap.*, raw hemp at 23,000,000 *rub. pap.*, raw flax at 26,000,000 *rub. pap.*, cordage and tackling of various kinds as manufactured at 3,000,000 *rub. pap.*, and sail-cloth and coarse linen at 11,500,000 *rub. pap.*

Tallow stands next on the list of exports, which was exported on the yearly average between 1827 and 1832 to the amount of 40,500,000 *rub. pap.* (\$8,738,100;) being one sixth of the whole export trade.

Corn and Meal, to the value of 37,500,000 *rub. pap.*, (\$8,080,450,) was exported on the yearly average between 1825 and 1832; ranking therefore but little behind tallow on the scale. But the corn trade varies exceedingly both with the home supply and the foreign demand, and as no limit can be set to the fluctuations of crops in a country whose climate is so various as that of Russia herself, the amount of corn and meal in the market has been generally found to be most abundant when it was least wanted, and when the scarcity in other nations was greatest, to be the least plenty.

The exportation of *Bristles* has doubled since the commencement of the present century. It was rated on the average taken between 1827 and 1832, at about 4,300,000 *rub. pap.* in value. *Hides* and *Leather* within the same period average at 7,000,000 *rub. pap.* yearly.

The harbors of the Baltic, though a century ago they were known for little more than their vast extent and their great capabilities, have become since the founding of St. Petersburg the principal avenues to the Russian

empire. We shall be obliged to limit our observations on their character, as well as on that of their more ancient though less flourishing rivals on the Black Sea and the Sea of Asoph, to the consideration of that of the capital itself, which has risen to a rank so permanent and so lofty, that it will require a revolution to unseat it. Moscow is still the head of the ancient empire. In her monstrous temples may be seen the monuments of the old dynasty of Russia, and in the barbarous statues clad in armor that clings to the frame as if it had been forged around it, remain the last memorials of those mighty chieftains who shook Rome under Augustus with their blows, and overwhelmed Rome under the Constantines. Like the shell of the chrysalis, shed when its inhabitant starts to a sphere of existence more exalted, they were dropped on the spot where their gigantic masters, after a sway of centuries in those inhospitable regions which they chose for their final abode, vanished at last from the earth. Between Ivan the barbaric and Peter the Great, there was but a momentary transition; and though it took the young czar years of toil and abstinence to remould the great empire that fell in his hands, his accession itself made the turning point between barbarity and civilization in the east of Europe. The tide has but commenced to roll back. It was ages in arriving to its ebb, and it may be as long before its course is completed. St. Petersburg, however, we may take as the capital of the new empire; and in its commercial strength, as well as its courtly splendor,—in its natural as well as its conventional advantages,—it is suitable to be the centre on which shall revolve the system of the vastest nation on earth.

St. Petersburg, according to the estimate of 1835, possesses forty-six great importing and exporting houses, of whom three act as bankers, one hundred and forty-one commercial establishments of the first scale, one hundred and sixty-one of the second, and nine hundred and eighty of the third. The number of ships passing in and out of the harbor of Kronstadt in the six years between 1820 and 1826, was 6,600, or 1,100 on a yearly average, and with cargoes of 130,000,000 *rub.* imports, and from 95 to 105,000,000 *rub.* exports. In the eight years from 1826 to 1833, the yearly average of ships entering and leaving reached 1,289, of which over one half were English, one fifteenth Prussian, one fifteenth Swedish and Norwegian, one twentieth Hanseatic, one twentieth from the United States, one twenty-fourth Russian, one twenty-fourth French, one twenty-fourth Danish, one twenty-fourth belonging to Mecklenburg, Hanover, and Oldenburg, one thirtieth from the Netherlands, with occasionally a very few from Spain and Portugal. Of the entering ships, six sevenths are usually fully laden, and one seventh in ballast; of the ships sailing out, but very few are laden with ballast alone. The imports into St. Petersburg in the eight years of 1826–33, are averaged yearly at 150,000,000 *rub. pap.*, or about \$32,225,000; the exports during the same period, at 111,500,000 *rub. pap.*, or about \$23,972,500.

It will be seen by an examination of the statements which it has been our object in the present paper to exhibit, that the commerce of Russia has advanced during the last fifty years, in strides which are unexampled in the history of Europe. The ten league boots in which our own country has marched, have been rivalled by those which are worn by our great European ally. Large tracts of land the most fertile have in both instances been rescued daily from the deserts which before had been the hunting-grounds of savages, and mines have been opened and productions raised

which are more rich and more useful than those which, in earlier ages, had formed the entire support of the European commercial nations. From the sleep of barbarism, Russia has been in the last century collecting herself; and though her strength is yet far from being perfect, and her faculties are numb from the torpor in which they so long have lain, we can estimate her future might by the grandeur of her proportions, and the variety of her resources. We hope that the period will soon arrive, when she will cast off the swaddling bands with which the cupidity of her rulers have enclosed her. The ancient czars, and in some degree the modern emperors, have looked upon their heritage too much in the light of a vast speculation, from which they were to reap whatever could be reaped while the sun shone; and as in older times the most prodigal waste would be committed, to the dispersion of the heir in remainder, in order to secure some slight temporary profit to the tenant in possession, so in our own times, the most oppressive duties have been laid on foreign commerce, without regard to the blighting consequences which would ensue, for the purpose of pensioning a favorite or carrying on a war. The business of trade has been lifted from the hands of its legitimate guardians—from the hands of merchants who have spent the first half of their life in severe apprenticeship—and has been placed in the crowded fangs of a government whose duties are already too heavy for it to compass, but whose avarice for authority increases in the degree that the capacity for its exercise diminishes. It is not the fault of the Russian emperor, that his subjects on the frontier are divided into two great, though disproportionate classes; and that while one tenth of them are employed in the enforcement of revenue laws, the remaining nine tenths are employed in violating them. It is not his fault, we should say, were we to concede that his commercial policy is just; for so extended is his heritage, and so scarce its inhabitants, that it would require the marshalling of a standing army of one half his entire population to prevent the entry of a chest of tea or a barrel of herring. We might stop to consider, with so fruitful an illustration before us, the danger and the inefficiency of that high pressure system which places in the hands of the civil administration the regulation of the affairs of trade. Russia has been struggling, since she has ranked among independent nations, to develop more strongly her gigantic resources. Her laborers, servile and goaded as they are, have produced, year after year, crops of their peculiar, though inestimable commodities, sufficient to buy them in return the comforts which are necessary to lift them from their degradation; but her government has stood by and told them—you may till and tire, you may produce and sell, you may export to the full limit of your labor, but when the returning produce comes to port, when the goods which you have labored to buy are brought back to you in payment of the goods which you have produced, they shall be met with taxes so great, as to stop their further progress; or, if not actually to prevent their entrance into the empire, to prevent their sale to those by whose exertions alone they are imported. Such a policy has taken the reward from industry, and has, therefore, destroyed its necessity. It has weakened the faculties of production, in the proportion that it has cut off the food by which they are nourished. But we may go further, and maintain, that through the restrictive system, carried out in its furthest ramifications—through the system of governmental interference into the domestic concerns of society, both collectively and singly—an

engine of despotism has been engendered, so complete, that till a revolution shall take place, which shall bring the separated classes again into juxtaposition, and restore the general circulation of the state, its resources must remain shackled, and its limbs incapable of complete and healthy exertion. We conclude by the consideration of,

V. *The commercial qualifications of the Russian people.*

By a decree of the Empress Catherine, dated 24th April, 1785, and confirmed and made perpetual on the 2d April, 1801, by the Emperor Alexander, the entire mass of the inhabitants of the cities was set apart from the nobility on the one side, and the peasantry on the other, by an act of incorporation which endowed it with peculiar privileges, and placed it under peculiar restraints. Six distinct divisions were instituted, in which the inhabitants of the empire, exclusive of the nobility and the peasantry, were thrown. We place them in the order in which they are laid down by Schubert. (Allg. Sta. i. 176.) The first class contains the *citizens proper*, or citizens who possess a house or a freehold in land within the walls of a city. To the second belong the *Gilden Burgers*, who are required to possess, distinct from their inherited estate or their trading assets, a certain actual capital, liable to taxation. To be numbered in the first *Gild* or subdivision in which the second class is divided, it is necessary to possess a capital of 50,000 *rub. pap.* (about \$10,750.) For the second *Gild*, 20,000 *rub. pap.* (\$4,300;) and for the third *Gild*, 8,000 *rub. pap.* (\$1,720.) Foreigners who are not enrolled as permanent citizens of the Russian empire, cannot be received within the *Gilden*, except by a special act of the members of the senate of the *Gild* which he wishes to enter, and even then he is forced to pay as a fee for admission, a sum equal to the capital necessary for the first *Gild*. To pass from a higher *Gild* to a lower, is only admissible in December, though it is allowable to rise upwards in the scale at any period throughout the year, provided that the applicant had certified to the sufficiency of his capital on the January preceding.

To the third class belong the members of the various domestic trades, arranged in their corporate capacity. The masters and apprentices of each trade are required to enroll themselves in the book which contains the names of their fellow craftsmen; and in accordance with the spirit which has been shown by the most of the emperors for the encouragement of domestic industry, foreigners are admitted without any other requisitions than those which insure their proficiency in their art.

The fourth class contains foreigners not included under the preceding heads, who at the time, on account of business, are making a sojourn in the state.

In the fifth class are numbered the *Namhaften Burger*, or citizens of consideration. It comprises the ordinary officers of state, together with artists and scholars who have passed successfully through their academical probation, and have obtained the credentials of their individual proficiency.

The sixth class is composed of the *Rasnotschinzu*, or all such as remain from the general mass after the preceding divisions are extracted. It comprises, therefore, all who are not entered into the five preceding classes, and who support themselves through day-labor, or employments which are not therein specified. They have the privilege, if privilege it may be called, of returning to the state of semi-slavery in which the peasantry are thrown, and of overleaping thereby, barriers which are in other

respects insurmountable. But whatever changes they may undergo, or whatever may be the vicissitudes of condition their descendants may experience, they are allowed to dispose without shackle of their property as far as it is situated within the bounds of a city, or to bequeath it at their death to their children.

It must be remembered that the whole population of Russia is ranked into three cardinal divisions. The nobles are endowed with official prerogatives more extensive than their brethren of the older European monarchies, though at the same time their personal freedom is more limited; the citizens or freeholders are divided into the classes whose condition we are at present discussing; the slaves, or peasantry,—for under the diseased system which we are considering the terms have become synonymous,—constitute by far the greater part of the population, and are reduced to a state of degradation which we think we may be safe in affirming, is unexampled in the records of modern times for its extent and its completeness.

It is by a reference to the condition of the servile classes, that the privileges of the citizens or freeholders can be best estimated. The slaves are regarded very much in the light of fixtures appendant to the land with which they are sold, or at best, as chattels that may be separated from it for a time for the convenience of trade: the citizens are allowed the right of locomotion within a limited extent, and are enabled to hold and to convey property. They can found factories and build workshops without special permission from their overseers; and from the usual restrictions which are laid on the purchase of slaves they are exempted. The members of the *Gilden* are singled out from their fellow *Burgers*, insomuch that they are freed from the operations of the arbitrary taxes which it is the privilege of the emperor to lay down, and they are subjected in their stead to a fixed yearly tax of one per cent on the property which they have been assessed to possess. They can enter into contracts with the government itself, are chartered to supply the crown with provisions of all kinds, and are enabled to sell, with the exception of brandy and salt, whatever commodities may be brought within the market.

On the members of the first Gild, who are required from its constitution to possess at least 80,000 *rubs.*, favors the most peculiar and exclusive are heaped. They are divided into two parts, of which the members of the first are called the *Merchants of the first class*, those of the second, simply *Fellows of the First Gild*. The merchants of the first class have the monopoly of the trade, both with the interior and with foreign countries; they can drive a coach and four, which seems to be looked upon as a conventional prerogative of the most flattering order; they can carry a sword; and the heads of their families are entitled to appear in court. The fellows of the first Gild, on the other hand, are allowed to participate in the business of banking; can enter besides into the trade of the city in which they live, and can establish workshops, manufactories, and forges. They can possess ships as well as smaller craft, and have the privilege of sending their goods to the various cities and courts of the empire. They enjoy, also, the honor of driving in a calash with two horses, and of being exempt from capital punishment, except in case of high treason.

The merchants of the second Gild are allowed to carry on every branch of the interior trade, to possess boats limited to river navigation, and to transport their goods by water and by land to cities and fairs under the

usual prescribed limitations. They are precluded from entering into the foreign trade, and their capacity of striking bargains with strangers is limited to domestic agricultural produce and raw stuffs. By an ukase of the 16th of May, 1798, they were allowed to employ body slaves to work in manufactories and mines, under condition, that the slaves themselves should henceforth be considered as appendant to the works in which they were introduced, unless the mineral or the raw material they were to labor on should be exhausted.

The merchants of the third Gild are privileged to enter into the retail business both in city and in country, and to peddle in the wares with which their trade is concerned at all places within the province in which they dwell. They can possess workshops and manufactories, can build or buy boats of the smallest description, can hold taverns or smaller establishments for public accommodation, and can enter into contracts with the crown which do not exceed the sum of 12,000 *rub.* Their official dignity is measured by the fact that their equipage is limited to one horse.

We do not feel it necessary to enter further into the labyrinth of Russian mercantile subdivisions. There is net within net, and mesh within mesh, and from the great importer who drives four Arabians to the pedler whose barrow is horseless, there is a grade into which every business man is thrown, and a grade from which the most ambitious cannot emancipate himself. In the solitary recesses of his distant cell, the imperial spider sits and weaves meshes still more fine and still more subtle; and the merchant who once finds himself caught within their rings, feels that the sphere of his future existence is limited by the narrow zone that is thus described. Sectional pride, the most dishumanizing feeling that can reign in the human breast, is fomented by the supreme authority as the passion that is most conducive to his safety; for he knows that when the jealousy and the suspicion of each of the infinitesimal fractions into which his subjects are divided, are directed against each other exclusively, he may sit secure on a throne which is built on their collective degradation. Trading, the ladder by which the Yankee boy climbs till he reaches the regions of wealth and power, has been stripped of its ascending bars, and presents to the young Russian apprentice the spectacle of a feat which is almost Herculean. He may mount, but he must mount without the usual assistance by which mounting is made practicable; and though by some fairy helps he should pluck, during his wanderings, seed which may produce bean-stalks as gigantic as those by which the hero of the nursery tale arrived at the elysium of his hopes, he must content himself, when he reaches it, to be looked upon by its rightful inhabitants as an interloper.

By a report made at the middle of the reign of Catherine II., in 1782, it appears that there were at the time 107,408 merchants and pedlers, together with 293,793 members of the class of citizens or freeholders, who could not be ranked with the two foregoing heads. Eleven years later, (1793) there were 127,856 merchants, and 428,380 of the remaining orders of citizens; in 1810, the total amount had risen to 621,399, and in 1816, to 900,000. In 1829, the number of the citizens amounted to 1,000,000; of whom 36 were merchants of the first Gild, 1,368 merchants of the second Gild, 24,629 of the third Gild, and 47 foreign merchants. We can, therefore, by estimating 5 heads to each family, rate the entire number of the citizen orders at 4,500,000, or about one twelfth of the population of the empire.

It would be beyond our province to enter more largely into the condition of the various ingredients of Russian society. We might say, however, that slavery has been incorporated in it, in a measure which is unequalled both for its comparative amount and for its actual strength. The number of body slaves amounts to 21,000,000, and it is said by Schubert that the number of slaves altogether constitutes six sevenths of the population of the empire. They have been placed there by the actual interposition of the supreme authority; they are received into the texture of society, by the continued exertions of those by whom society is governed; and without, therefore, the justification which may be afforded from the fact that exists with us, that they are the remnant of a race who were transplanted among us by the men of distant generations, who brought them here without our consent, and kept them among us till they became necessary to the cultivation of the soil. The Russian slaves spring from the same family as the masters who rule them, and have been reduced to the slavery in which they now stand by those who are making use, in order to clinch it, of whatever means their temporal authority may give. The slave who tills, and the sovereign who lounges, are branches of the same stem; and though emancipation could this moment be effected without the danger of a servile war, though none of those violent antipathies of blood and color are raging which in other circumstances might be recognised, emancipation is opposed with all the coldness which a heart of stone can give, and delayed by all the vigor which is wielded by an arm of steel.

It was not, however, our purpose to show that unfortunate as may be the social evils under which as a country we labor, they are by no means so extended nor so flagrant as those which are at present in existence within the limits of the European continent. Our object was to exhibit in its strongest bearings the oppressions which are worked by a system of commercial restrictions, which, from the theory on which it is built, is of all examples the most perfect. One great axiom, if an absurdity can be called an axiom, was set out with by the founder of the Russian empire. A country that exports more than it imports has the balance of trade in its favor; and a country that has the balance of trade in its favor is on the high road to prosperity. A man who has a field full of a drug of which he can himself consume a trifling quantity, is certainly right in getting rid of as much as he can with convenience; but if he should persist in refusing a proper exchange for his commodity, and should determine to give it away scot free, he is impoverishing himself, instead of adding to his riches. It has been the aim of the Russian government to force out of the empire as much as could possibly be so disposed of, and to prevent the entrance of any thing in return but specie and the precious metals. Valves were stretched over the mouth of each port, which open very readily when the stream was outward, but when the tide ran up, close their lips with a tenacity which nothing but a golden cargo can loosen. It is forgotten that specie, though admirably calculated for a circulating medium, is intrinsically impotent as a source of wealth, and that a nation, as well as a man, may starve in the midst of gold, if it is destitute of ordinary nourishment. A population so vast and so diversified, while it is capable of raising in a great degree the commodities which thrive in the climate over which it is spread, or spring up in the soil which is allotted to it, finds that of the other articles which are necessary to the comfort of life it can raise but few, and those few but with great toil and with great expenditure. Its

primary object is to supply itself with the articles of which it is most in want. Its secondary object is to rid itself of those of which it has no necessity. But by some strange misconception of the character of trade, while in such cases a high tax is laid on the foreign commodities that are thus required, the government makes use of its entire official strength to export, without getting any thing in return but gold and silver, not only the most unnecessary, but often the most valuable, of their domestic productions.

Such has been the policy of Russia since her entry upon the catalogue of commercial nations. Certain commodities, peculiar in their best condition to her soil, and useful, though not indispensable to other nations, she possesses in abundance, and she certainly cannot be accused of a desire to keep them to herself. On the contrary, she has shown a lively and consistent determination to force hogs' bristles, hides, ropes, manufactured leather, and tallow, upon whomsoever could come within her limits ; though with the condition that specie, no matter how low it may be, should be paid for them, instead of articles of which she is infinitely more in need, no matter what may be their price. But the nations with whom she contracts, having but a certain amount of the precious metals, are obliged to check their demands after a little while, and turn the proffered commodities from their doors. On the basis of exchange they were willing to meet, but they refuse to drain their dominions of an article which, though it is of no intrinsic value, they possess only to a limited extent, and have chosen it for that very reason as a standard of domestic circulation. The consequence is, that the sale of Russian productions is but a fraction of what it would be were the protective duties on foreign goods removed, while the Russian people themselves are debarred from the enjoyment of those immense advantages which unrestrained commerce could give them.

There is no doubt that Russia, in spite of the pressure of her tariff, has been progressing rapidly in her course as a commercial nation. The increase in the sale of many of her standard productions has increased ten-fold in the last fifty years, and in very few cases alone has she retrograded. But it must be remembered that she has sprung within that period from a state of semi-barbarity, and that half a century more backwards would place her among the Goths and Vandals of the north. Her strength was great but ungainly ; it was as unlimited then as it is now ; and it is in the method of making use of it alone that she has improved. We cannot, therefore, place her on a par with nations who were lead forth from the nursery and drawn into the bustle of life before their muscles were formed or their growth completed. She took her place among nations with an arm that was qualified to compete with those of any around her ; she stepped out from her cradle in the prime of her savage strength ; and though, like the Orson of the woods, her motion was ungainly, and her might often spent in vain, she found in the gentle teachings of the spirit of commerce that wooed her, a code that before long had chastened her exertions, and placed the discordant forces which she brought to bear, in a resultant in which they would be more potent.

Such was the cause of the first rapid start that was taken by the Russian empire. Her sails were spread to court the breeze when the eastern waters were first ruffled by its progress. For many a weary day her mariners had lain listlessly in the idle sun, or had dissipated their strength in rude pastimes. But at once, there started up by the helmsman's stand

a pilot who could guide the rudder over the boundless waste in which the ship was thrown, and in a moment she was careering along the seas in the fulness of her complete equipment. It was not until her sails were lowered and her rudder turned that her course was impeded, and the progress checked which she was making to the highest station among European nations.

We believe the time will come when the shackles of commercial restriction will be removed, and when mankind will be left free to enjoy the provisions which, under every clime, Providence has spread before them. Wealth consists in an enjoyment of the comforts of life and a participation in its luxuries, and we may look forward to an epoch when those narrow barriers will be disregarded which had been laid in the way of a communication among the nations of the earth as free as that between the individuals of a nation. In such an era, though from the entire equality of station, and the reciprocity of obligation, it will be difficult for one state to maintain an actual superiority over others, we can imagine that those great regions in the northeast of Europe and the north of Asia, will be brought to a degree of usefulness that will raise them to their just importance in the economy to which they have so long been a drag. We are beginning as a people to learn that to pave the way for so great a consummation becomes our own duty as well as the duty of our neighbors, and that by the stand which as a free nation we are bound to take, we may give to those whose constitution is more defective or whose opportunities are less complete, courage to enter upon a course which will lead to the free diffusion of blessings which by general consent alone we will be able to realize.

ART. II.—COINAGE OF THE PRECIOUS METALS.

THE invention of money, in its simplest, rudest form, is involved in considerable obscurity. Personal property, as represented by any metallic device, is ascribed to Cain, the son of Adam, but on exceedingly doubtful authority. Josephus has the credit of this hypothesis. But Abraham, who paid 400 shekels for a burying place for Sarah, his wife, is the oldest authentic record of a transaction in which a metal represented the value of property—"And Abraham stood up from before the Lord and spake unto the sons of Heth, saying—That he may give me the cave of Macphelah, which he hath, which is in the end of his field, for as much money as it is worth," &c. "And Ephron answered Abraham, saying unto him, My lord, hearken unto me: the land is worth 400 shekels of silver. And Abraham hearkened unto Ephron, and Abraham weighed to Ephron the silver which he had named in the audience of the sons of Heth,—four hundred shekels of silver, current money with the merchant."

Although this chapter of Genesis is the oldest of which there is any knowledge extent, in which money is mentioned, we are irresistibly led to acknowledge the fact, that Abraham as well as the Canaanites, the original inhabitants of the country, with whom the bargain was made, entertained the same views that we do in relation to the value of it. And it also clearly appears that the business of the merchant, the regular traffic of buying and selling, was as well understood in all its multiplied details,

as at the present day ; for it is positively declared that he "*weighed 400 shakels of silver, current money with the merchant.*" It moreover presupposes its universal diffusion amongst the nations of that early age as a representative of property,—even long before the birth of the patriarch. The same ancient process of weighing money, characteristic of the age of Abraham, is still customary in Asia, and even in all banking houses of reputation throughout the world. The ancient Greeks were of the opinion that money was invented by Hermodice, the wife of Midas, king of Phrygia, who is fabled to have had the power of turning every thing into gold which he might touch. On the other hand, the Latins ascribed the invention to Janus, one of their imaginary kings.

We are led to the conclusion, that the simple exchange of one article for another, for which an individual had a strong desire, was practised, notwithstanding the reference which has been made to money. Homer, who probably lived between the ninth and tenth century before our Saviour, says that the golden armor of Glaucus was valued at a 100 oxen : and another set, the property of Diomedes, was worth only ten oxen.

The great inconvenience arising from that sort of traffic, however, in time, as men were multiplied, and their wants became more numerous, must have been felt to be particularly burdensome and inconvenient : there was no way in which a person could concentrate his property to a transportable form.

It seems as though by a general consent the primitive inhabitants of Asia, when the rights of individuals to property of any kind were recognised, willingly substituted something which would represent it. Convenience rendered it necessary that the substitute should be portable, or the object would have been wholly defeated.

As gold and silver were the scarcest of the metals accessible to man, and the least liable to changes from those influences which, experience unquestionably taught nomadic tribes, affected the more common sort, a value appears to have been very early attached to them. This is inferred from the circumstance that mention is made of one of them, *silver*, as precious, and a representative of property, long before gold.

Trade originally must have consisted in the simple exchange of one article for another, for which one person either had need, or conceived that he had ; but when the accumulation of certain goods gave advantages to the owner over those who were destitute, various animate and inanimate things were selected, from one period to another, to represent their value. A bow, for example, was considered equal in value to ten arrows,—because ten arrows could be manufactured in the time required for constructing one bow. Here, then, it seems to a considerable extent property was really the worth of one's time : that is, if one arrow could be made in one hour, then one arrow would be a compensation for the hire of one's time for that period.

Cattle, in Italy, were once the circulating medium, as in the age of Homer, and collectively were termed *pecunia*—a word derived from *pecus*, a herd. The term *pecuniary*, now in general use in monetary transactions, and thus applied in ordinary affairs of bargaining, was derived from the same root.

On the authority of Pliny, we are expressly informed that the first coin known to the Romans, had on it the figure of a cow. This simple fact evidently shows a relationship to the historical account of the former use

of those animals, to which the picture bore a significant reference. The object was to keep alive in the mind that it referred to something of more magnitude or certain worth, of which the possessor had a distinct knowledge.

The word money, universally understood by its power, was derived from the Latin *moneta*, *moneo*, signifying to mark. Thus all coins, with a few exceptions, in all countries, have ever borne some visible mark, either by device or character, expressive of their intrinsic value. Thus a piece of metal, of whatever kind, bearing the image of the Roman cow, was an evidence that it was of the value of one such animal; and another of double the weight or size, was equal in value to two or ten cows, as the case might be.

Subsequently, in order to make great wealth less bulky and burdensome, metals not readily accessible, and therefore necessarily scarce at all times, were selected,—being *multum in parvo*—much in a little space,—to stand in the place of the real articles, which were the acknowledged wealth of any one person, or the public. Finally, it is by no means improbable, even in theory, to suppose that a certain portion of gold, one fourth of the dimensions of that bearing a picture of the Roman cow, for example, because difficult to obtain from the earth, ultimately became the symbol of that useful domestic animal.

On a certain momentous occasion, says an early historian, when the Romans were exceedingly pressed for money, Juno informed them that if they would practice justice, they should always be supplied. The goddess was afterward called *Juno Moneta*, and her temple became the first regular national mint of which there is any tradition. In the course years, money was ascertained to be so useful that it was deified, and made a goddess, under the name of *Dea Pecunia*. She was represented as a female holding a balance in one hand and a cornucopia in the other. One was significant of just weight, and the other of plenty.

Savages and barbarians, wherever discovered, have ordinarily had some circulating medium, the acknowledged representative of property. The Indians of all North America, when visited first by our European ancestors, had an article of difficult fabrication, called wampum. So absolutely necessary was it to have something to represent property, in the first settlement of New England, in the scarcity of the precious metals, that long after the organization of the government of Massachusetts wampum was a legal tender.

The Sandwich Islanders had a whale's tooth, a kind of red ochre, and hogs. At the Marquesas Islands, a whale's tooth, twenty-five or thirty years ago, was the *ne plus ultra* of wealth; and the native who by any labor, artifice, or sacrifice, was so fortunate as to obtain one, constantly wore it suspended by a cord from his neck, and thus became the enviable *Croesus* of the whole region. The negroes of the west coast of Africa, and probably through the interior of that vast continent generally, have cakes of rock salt or cowries, a common muscle shell, stained red,—thousands of bushels of which have been carried there from this and other countries, for the purchase of ivory, gold dust, ostrich plumes, and slaves.

Iron bars were once in use by the ancient Lacedemonians for money, having been first heated and then quenched in vinegar. The odor exhaled from them was an evidence of a lawful preparation for trade in exchange for commodities; and it was understood, moreover, that all bars thus pre-

pared should not be used for other or baser purposes. Besides, the notion prevailed that the iron cooled in vinegar was made too brittle for domestic use. This was a trick of the state to prevent unlawful imitations.

Before the invasion of Julius Cæsar, the natives of England had tin plates, iron plates, and rings, which were money, and their only money. On the authority of Seneca, a curious account is given of a period when leather, appropriately stamped to give it a certain legal character, was the only current money. At a comparatively recent date in the annals of Europe, Fredich the Second, who died in 1250, at the siege of Milan, actually paid his troops with leather money. Nearly the same circumstance occurred in England during the great wars of the barons. In the course of 1350, King John, of France, for the ransom of his royal person, promised to pay Edward the Third of England 8,000,000 of gold crowns. In order to fulfil the obligation, he was reduced to the mortifying necessity of paying the expenses of the palace in leather money, in the centre of each piece there being a little bright point of silver. In that reign is found the origin of the travestied honor of boyhood, called—conferring a leather medal. The imposing ceremonies accompanying a presentation, gave full force, dignity, and value to a leather jewel, which noblemen were probably proud and gratified to receive at the hand of majesty.

So late as 1574, there was an immense issue of money in Holland stamped on small sheets of pasteboard. But further back in the vista of years, Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome, who reigned 672 years before the Christian era, made money out of wood as well as leather; a knowledge of which might have influenced King John in the bold project of substituting the tanned hide of an animal for gold and silver, well known to his subjects to be exceedingly precious.

Both gold and silver appear to have been in extensive circulation in Egypt, soon after their potency was understood in Asia. From thence they were introduced into Carthage and Greece; and finally, travelling further and further in a westerly direction, the city of Rome discovered the importance of legalizing their circulation.

Weight having always been of the first importance in early times, the shape of money appears to have been regarded with perfect indifference for a series of ages.

Although there is a manifest difference between money and coin, they both convey to the mind, in our day, the same idea. The term coin, originally, was considered a pure French word, signifying *corner*.

Coin is considered by some antiquarians to be a corruption, and has reference to many varieties of ancient coins, which were ordinarily square, and consequently distinguished by their corners. Others derive the word from *cuneus*, a wedge, since ingots of bullion in former times were of that shape. Another class of bibliomaniacs trace the word *coin* to the Greek *κοινος*, *common*, since it is the common object of necessity and avarice, the whole world through.

The etymology, however, is of little consequence, since most other useful inventions belonging to the earliest condition of the human family, are lost in the accumulating lumber of six thousand years.

When the bits and portions of metal received as precious, were extensively circulated, it is quite probable that each possessor shaped them to suit his own conception, as practised to some extent at this time in remote places in the East Indies:—the payer away cuts off parts with shears,

till he obtains, by exact weight, the stipulated amount. It was thus that men travelled with the evidence of their possessions in a sack. But great inconvenience must have resulted from this often tedious process; and as nations advanced in civilization and the economic arts, a certain mark or impression on certain sized pieces were acknowledged to be the sign of a certain weight. This facilitated negotiations, and afterward led to further improvements both in the shape, weight, and beauty of the external devices.

By and by the profile of the king, the date of the coinage, and the record of important events, gave still more completeness and character to the circulating article of exchange.

Although brass is a compound of two metals, zinc and copper, both existing in abundance, the method of compounding them might have been kept a secret from the vulgar eye, so that it was no difficult undertaking for an organized government to give it a fictitious value; and accordingly, till the reign of Gyges, king of Lydia, 720 years before our Saviour, and 300 after Solomon, the principal wealth of the renowned Delphic temple consisted of brass tripods, and vessels consecrated to the service of paganism. Of the scarcity of gold and silver in the infancy of some of the Grecian states, the following circumstance will bear testimony. One hundred and fifty years after the death of Solomon, the Lacedemonians were obliged to have recourse to Cræsus, to procure the gold of which they formed the statue of Apollo, on Mount Thornax.

After that, Hiero, king of Syracuse, sought everywhere, and for a long while too, to obtain gold for a statue of Victory, and a tripod for the Delphic temple; and at length procured it at Corinth, in the house of one Architetes, who had collected it in small quantities, by purchases. He supplied the king with the exact weight required, and besides gave him a handful, as a personal present, which Hiero repaid by sending him a vessel laden with corn.

Athæneus quotes a passage from Anaximenes, tutor of Alexander the Great, who wrote 350 years before our era, which states that a golden necklace of Eriphyle, given her by Polyneces, formerly the property of Venus, was chiefly celebrated because gold was so wonderfully scarce in Greece. The same author asserts that Philip of Macedon, in the early part of his prosperous reign, before he had procured gold from the Thracian mines, on retiring for the night, was in the habit of placing a certain little golden cup under his pillow for safety, so highly was it prized on account of the rarity of that metal in his otherwise rich dominions.

The scarcity of the precious metals in Greece from a very early point of history, down to the beginning of Philip's government, forms a striking contrast with the representations given by historians of their abundance in Egypt and India in contemporary ages.

The Grecians were hardly known to the Hebrews, and this is a reason why mention has not been made of them in the Old Testament. The knowledge acquired by the Jews of other parts of the world, was principally confined to Egypt, Arabia, and that part of central Asia denominated Chaldea or Assyria. Whilst they were themselves slowly advancing in civilization, the classic Grecians were unknown, because they were barbarians, and feeble as a people.

In Greece, silver was the first coined metal; but in Rome, where it was wholly unknown, copper and brass were the first used as money. The first valuation in the eternal city, was by the *libra gravis asis*—a

pound of heavy brass. Silver and gold were regulated by weight, after the army procured them by conquest. The old as well as the present Roman pound consists of 12 oz. of 458 grains each to the ounce—being just equal to the avoirdupois ounce.

Large sums of money in the old Roman world were invariably reckoned by a large weight, called *pondus*—or a hundred pounds of brass.

The first regular operation of coining money transmitted by history, was in the reign of Servius Tullus, 460 years before Christ. It was made of brass, and each piece weighed half an ounce. Shortly after, a larger piece was coined, called *sestertius*, equal in value however to only about five cents. Yellow brass possessed double the value of the common, or bronze-colored. Commencing with the reign of Augustus, the *sestertius* was wholly fabricated of yellow brass.

A new issue of money took place in the reigns of Valerian and Gallienus, made of copper, silver-washed, called *denarii*, equal in value to 10 asses,—being in our currency about $14\frac{1}{4}$ cents only.

Two hundred and sixty years before the Saviour, in the year of Rome 485, silver was made use of by government as currency, upon which was a large cross or rude letter X, numerically meaning 10, because 10 asses were represented by it.

This kind of coin was continually changing in value through a succession of emperors, till the original worth was entirely lost sight of. All those of the oldest date bear the figure of a female in a helmet, on one side, and the rude X in relief, on the other.

The next money, in point of time, had the head of Roma on one side, with the name of the master of the mint on the other, together with some minor figures. The third order, still younger, bore the head of the consul:—hence the name of *consular denarii*. Celsus, the physician, agrees with Pliny in saying that 84 *denarii* were coined from a pound of silver.

It is curious to remark, that one *denarius*, at the epoch of their greatest worth in Rome and its dependencies, was amply sufficient to support a man genteelly a whole day. Indeed, $14\frac{1}{4}$ cents would sustain the dignity of a Roman senator, so far as the necessities of life were concerned, twenty-four hours. This, contrasted with the artificial requirements and luxury of our day, is particularly striking. The actual cost of a single dinner at a respectable hotel, would have boarded a Roman gentleman, when that power swayed an universal empire, more than seven days.

The next device amongst the Romans for representing property, in which much was comprised in a small space, was the invention of *golden money*, two hundred and four years before the Saviour. It was called the *aureus*:—*denarius aureus*, or golden *denarius*.

Many curious and singular facts might be collected upon the history of figures displayed on the coins of different nations of antiquity, but the inquiry properly belongs to the details of the art of die-sinking.

Notwithstanding the detestation of the Jews to all pictures, reliefs, or resemblances to living things, because they entertained a fear that they might lead to idolatrous worship, they seem to have forgotten their own policy when the shekel exhibited the golden pot of manna on one side and the budding rod of Aaron on the other.

The Dardans, a free people of the ancient city of Dardanum, situated on the strait now called *Dardanelles*, figured two cocks on their money, in the act of fighting. Alexander pictured his famous horse Bucephalus

on his ; and it was continued by the numerous generals who divided the ample dominions of their master amongst themselves after his death.

Many of the Athenian coins had on them the figure of an owl—and some an ox. There was a little attic wit upon this device, familiar to the Grecians—*bos in lingua* ; for they used to say of a lawyer who did not exert himself to achieve a cause, as it was well known he had the power to do, that he had an ox on his tongue.

In Ægina, the money exhibited on its face a tortoise,—signifying that it should go slowly and deliberately from the pocket.

No living individual's features were stamped on money till after the overthrow of the Roman commonwealth, when the emperor fixed his miniature upon it. Since that prodigious innovation, the displacement of the gods and goddesses and arbitrary signs, the example has generally been followed by princes and rulers in all countries, with the exception of the United States and Turkey. But the Turks are not to be classed with civilized nations, while some of their principal institutions are utterly at variance with the scheme of progressive civilization and Christianity. Their money is simply inscribed with the name of the living sultan, as far as practicable, and the date of the year when Mahomet went to paradise. Their utter detestation of all kinds of images and pictures, totally forbids the introduction of resemblances to animate or inanimate things, at least under the sanction of government ; nor would such specimens of art be willingly tolerated even in private.

A variety of strange devices are exhibited on European coins in each successive age, infinitely curious, and interesting to those who delight in studying the progress of the arts from age to age. Our own money neither bears the head of the president of the United States, nor any particular subordinate magistrate ; but simply an ideal profile of liberty.

Formerly, in England, there was a mint in nearly every county in the realm. As the principles of government became better understood, the privilege of coining money was tacitly conceded, and wisely too in a monarchy, to be a royal prerogative. It should always be the exclusive right of the supreme authority of the land to regulate this essential, life-giving stimulus of national industry and individual enterprise, or it would be so debased, without the incessant vigilance of the law, that it would become utterly valueless.

From all we can discover in the history of the past, the multiplication of money has invariably belonged exclusively to the state. Till within a comparatively short period of two hundred and eighty years, the process of coining was extremely rude and unsatisfactory—being nothing more than placing a flat piece of gold or silver between two dies, engraved with letters or devices, and striking the upper one with a hammer sufficiently forcibly to make an impression in relief. This was rightly enough called *hammered money*, being in harmony with the spirit and letter of contracts in those days, which expressly provided for payment in *hammered money* ; and meaning much the same as *current money*, with us. So far as the beauty of the pieces was concerned, it was invariably imperfect, arising from the difficulty of placing the dies exactly over each other, and striking a uniform blow. In a large portion of the old Spanish dollars, and particularly on the margins of the pistareens, there is the appearance of inequality in width as well as thickness—resulting from a sliding, as it were, of the dies.

The French are wholly entitled to the credit of having invented the coining press, first used in the palace of Henry II., between 1550 and 1558.

Henry III., however, re-established the hammer dies, on account of the cheapness of manufacturing with the old tools. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the press was introduced into England, but in about ten years abandoned on the same account as in France. In 1645, Louis XIV. again patronised the new money-mill, and in 1623 it was again revived in England, although alternately used with the hammer and dies till 1662, when its utility was completely established over the old and antique process.

Coining is now performed in the tower of London, as at Philadelphia, Charleston, and New Orleans, by steam power. Eight presses, attended by as many small boys, will coin 19,000 pieces of any denomination of money in one hour; and the machine in the mean time registers itself the exact number, so that it is literally impossible for a workman to deceive the overseer.

English money obtained the following specific designations quite early after the legal system of coinage was established. The pound at first really was a pound in weight, of silver; after a while a number of certain kinds of pieces collectively weighing a pound, being more convenient, were received as equal to one solid mass; but there never was a real piece of money stamped as a pound. The pound consequently refers to a certain amount or aggregation of small and convenient pieces of gold or silver, existing in the coffers of the government, or promised on the face of a note issued on the authority of parliament, as the case may be.

Cash, in commercial language, means ready money, supposed to be in immediate possession, from the French word *caisse*, chest or coffer.

Guinea was so called because first made of gold brought from that part of Africa, and formerly bore an elephant on one side. *Angels*, now extremely rare, are no longer wrought. Penny was once called *penig* by the Saxons. Farthing means *four things*, or parts of a penny, &c. Copper was coined in Elizabeth's time, in small quantities, but not well received by the public.

During the existence of the Saxon heptarchy in England, money was scarcer than it ever was before, from the invasion of the Romans, or at any period since.

When the Romans abandoned Britain and Gaul, over which their dominion had been supreme, they carried with them every thing that was considered portable wealth, leaving nothing behind to which they attached much value. What is now Great Britain, especially, was left so deplorably poor, as it regarded gold and silver, that *living money*, so called in law, became a legal tender. This consisted of slaves and cattle, which passed currently and without question, in the payment of debts, and really supplied the deficiency of money. Here we see man suddenly reduced to the necessity of resorting to the primitive mode of transacting business, which has already been adverted to. When one person owed another a certain sum, if he could not raise the coin, or only a moiety of the stipulated sum, the deficiency was made up in living money, which was understood to be slaves, horses, cows, and sheep, at a rate established by law. All kinds of mulcts imposed by the state, the courts, or penances by the church, were paid in *dead* or *living* money, as was most convenient; with

one exception, for the church always refused slaves in payment for penances. This custom was so general in Scotland and Wales, that it is believed no coinage took place in those countries in the Saxon ages.

The very little money, however, kept from the Romans, in the country, was almost exclusively struck at Constantinople, and called *Byzants*. One pound of gold was coined into seventy-two of those pieces. St. Dunstan, who figures in English history, purchased of king Edward the manor of Hendon, in Middlesex, not far from the year 960, for two hundred byzants; being a little more than three pounds weight of gold, which would make the cost one hundred and fifty pounds sterling, not the present one thousandth part of its value.

Alfred the Great was one of the richest princes of the age in which he lived, yet he bequeathed only five hundred pounds to each of his sons, and one hundred to the daughters. The Saxon pound weight of silver was 5,400 grains, which, in the present English currency, would be fourteen hundred pounds to the sons, and two hundred and eighty pounds to the daughters.

In the reign of Ethelred, anno 997, the price of a man slave was £2 16s. 2d.; a horse, £1 15s. 2d.; an ass, 14s.; an ox, 7s.; a cow, 6s. 2d.; a swine, 18s. 10d.; a sheep, 18s. 8d.; and a goat only 4½d.

Notwithstanding the low price of what were generally considered necessary commodities, the nobles were corrupt, and as much addicted to sports of the field, as under the government of Queen Victoria. At that period, the price of a greyhound or a hawk was the same as that of a man slave; and the robbing a hawk's nest was punished as severely by the law as the murder of a human being.

Ethelred was compelled to pay tribute to the Danes, which so exhausted England, as again to compel the country to submit to the monarchy of Canute. In France, at the period we are contemplating, the scarcity was equally embarrassing. Charles the Bold, at the close of the ninth century, when projecting a military expedition into Italy, could only raise, by all methods in his power, some of which were extremely unjust and oppressive, 10,000 marks, or £18,000. By the accounts preserved in the Cathedral of Strasburg, the wages paid the masons who labored on that magnificent edifice, was only two pfennigs a day. The pfennig was a copper coin, of which one hundred and twenty were made of a pound of the metal. When the great bridge of Dresden was erected, in the thirteenth century, two pfennigs a day was the sum each mechanic received.

Low in value and character as was the coinage, it was counterfeited, debased, and even clipped to a great degree, though the law visited the criminal, when detected, with all its might and terribleness. The Jews, whether always justly or not, were prodigious sufferers, for cruelties towards that oppressed remnant of Israel were considered meritorious by all classes of society. Two hundred and eighty Jews were put to death in London alone, for debasing and clipping money, in the single year of 1279, besides many more in other parts of the realm. That was an ominous period, for at the time of those executions, all the goldsmiths in the kingdom were simultaneously seized and thrown into prison on mere suspicion that they were guilty of the same crime.

Richard I. of England, in 1192, on his return from the Holy Land, was made prisoner by the Duke of Austria. He wrote a letter to his mother, queen Elenor, and to the judges of all England, beseeching them to raise

the price of his ransom, which was fixed at 70,000 marks, or £140,000. No application was made to the merchants for assistance, because they were probably too poor. In 1194, when the king was released, the ransom was raised by melting the silver cups used in the holy eucharist; and a tax of one fourth of the income of all persons, including ecclesiastics, was laid; and then, it was only by the friendly assistance of France, that the monarch finally raised the whole sum.

The iron money of Lycurgus, the South Sea Bubble, the tulip mania of Holland, and the issues of paper from banking institutions incorporated with certain privileges, are subjects of profound interest, on account of the influences they have exerted on the affairs of mankind.

Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, who flourished a little while after the splendid and glorious reign of Solomon, not far from nine hundred years before the advent of the Saviour, in order to regenerate the political character of a country which he considered on the verge of destruction—a nation whose rank and fortunes had fallen below the standard of supposed excellence in war, and surely, therefore, sinking into comparative obscurity, and whose redemption seemed to depend on a thorough reformation of manners—first equalized the landed property. In imbecile Sparta, as everywhere else, there were the poor and the rich; but under the vigorous system of regeneration adopted by that most resolute and daring theorist, each man had a lot of ground given him, which was capable of yielding, one year with another, upon the average, seventy bushels of grain; and twelve for every woman, besides a requisite quantity of oil and wine.

He then attempted to subdivide their moveable, personal property, in order to take away all appearances of inequality; but he soon perceived that such rashness could not be tamely endured, and Lycurgus therefore contrived another less offensive, but not less arbitrary method, of achieving by stratagem what he could not accomplish by more direct means.

First, he interdicted the circulation of gold and silver, and ordered that the only metallic representative of property should be of iron exclusively. To a great weight of that he assigned but a very small value, so that to lay up ten minæ, (\$142 37,) a room was necessary for its storage, and to move it from one place to another, it was necessary to have a yoke of oxen.

When the Spartans, however, became dissatisfied with their native territories, as prescribed to them by their despotic legislator, and broke into other countries in their wars, iron money was of no service; the gold of the Persians dazzled their eyes, till at length they became actually distinguished for covetousness, and renowned for a morbid appetite for that which they had been positively forbidden to use.

During the long period of the Peloponnesian war, the Spartans were sometimes vanquished, but often the victors; yet they could never have made any serious impression upon their rival foes, had not stupidity and folly weakened their ranks.

From the moment the Spartans became money-loving, may be dated the complete ruin of their vigorously disposing constitution. The treasures found in Athens, the spoils of Persia, the plunder of unoffending strangers, together with the fruits of commercial industry, were transported by Lysander to the home of the iron minæ. He was a commander of prodigious power and unbounded ambition; proud, haughty, avaricious, and not at all scrupulous about the means by which he accomplished his

ends. Having gained over to his views a strong party in Sparta, he prevailed so over them as to introduce riches into the state; not, as was asserted, for the benefit of individuals, but on account of the pressing necessities of the government. But it soon found its way to the coffers of individuals, and consequently carried with it dissensions, luxury, and a fixed aversion to the rigorous discipline of their fathers. Very speedily, notwithstanding the supposed stability of a fundamental law on which their property was acknowledged to rest, people began to manifest an eagerness to possess the new money, as an alleged means of improving their condition, and of elevating themselves from that positive dependence which Lycurgus, by his institution, had intended permanently to establish. A common bond of union was consequently destroyed by the introduction of a new species of wealth, the exclusion of which had raised Spartan reputation, till the nation was regarded almost as invincible. Interests were by and by divided, and each one contemplated in the growing degeneracy objects altogether foreign to national glory. Such was the consummate skill of Lysander, however, that he diverted all minds from the enormous vices, profligacy, avarice, and dissimulation of which he was guilty. With the acquisition of foreign money came effeminacy, physical debility, laxity of morals, and impiety. Neither purity of thought nor public virtue, could be restrained against the devouring influence of money in the once invincible Sparta. Such is the simple story of an experiment on a larger scale of first abrogating the use of money, where it had once been the representative of wealth and power, as the greatest obstacle to national integrity and virtue.

Xenophon relates that Lysander sent from Athens many rich spoils, beside 470 talents of silver. Its safe arrival at once created disputes and bickerings to which they had not been in that generation at all accustomed. Some celebrated the praises of the fortunate commander, and publicly rejoiced in his good fortune; but others, who knew the nature of wealth, and who also understood the value of their constitution, entertained an entirely different opinion: they looked upon the receipt of this enormous treasure as an open violation of a law imposed upon the state under peculiar solemnities. They even had the fearlessness, notwithstanding the increasing corruption of manners, to express their apprehensions in the ears of the magistrates.

Events followed in quick succession that justified their apprehensions. Dissensions, dissatisfaction with the administration of affairs, and the indolence and advancing poverty of a once proud-spirited race, was perceptible to surrounding nations in the rapid decay of all the former distinguishing characteristics of Spartan heroes.

It is obvious that the experiment of Lycurgus was diametrically opposed to those innate feelings, which, under all circumstances, have had, and always will exercise a controlling influence on human character. The love of individual possession is inherent, and any attempt to deprive men of that to which they affix a specific value, without their free concurrence, engenders turmoil in small communities, and public calamity and even desperation in a polished nation.

The practical operation of the principle has been repeatedly exemplified in Turkey, especially by the late Sultan Mahmoud the Second, who regulated the value of money almost weekly, a few years since, according to his exigencies. If a large sum, as frequently happened in direct taxa-

tion, became due to government, word was sent forth that the para was worth but two thirds, perhaps, what it passed for two weeks before. On the other hand, if the Sublime Porte was paying off large bodies of troops, or otherwise making extensive disbursements, then the value of the para was boldly announced to be worth more than when the same identical money was paid by the subject to the public receivers.

The next remarkable experiment for substituting a worthless article for that which had universally been esteemed precious, took place in Holland in the last century, at the very period when the nation was extensively known for its mercantile enterprise and thrift in trade wherever the name of Holland was known.

Strange as it may appear, instead of employing some durable material, or issuing a promissory note under the obligations of a chartered institution, the calculating people of that land of dykes hit upon the root of a vegetable, a garden plant, which speedily, by general consent, became the representative of the wealth of the country. It was nothing more ponderous or rare than the bulbous root of a tulip; not the beautiful expanded flower—no, nor the bud that contained an incipient flower, but the mere root, which was bought and sold with extreme caution by the *perit*, a weight considerably less than a grain.

Such was the eagerness and positive insanity of all orders of persons possessing the means of embarking in the newly developed highway to fortune, that the epoch of the tulip excitement has been properly called the tulip mania of Holland. The greatest trade in those roots was carried on in Hærlém, Amsterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and Rotterdam, during the years 1634–5–6–7. At the close of 1637, the fiscal fever began to subside, and men, otherwise shrewd and circumspect, were brought to their senses and bankruptcy at the same moment.

A Dutchman by the name of Munting wrote a large volume containing a minute history of that strange infatuation, in which those who may like to make themselves acquainted with the process of conducting the tulip exchange can find the particulars.

Different varieties sold for different prices; and such as were of a celebrated character for some latent property, highly estimated by the stock-brokers, bore enormous prices in the general market. One was called the Admiral Leifken, another, the admiral Van der Eyk, a third, Semper Augustus, &c. A root of the variety denominated *vicerey*, brought 448 florins. When the mania was at its meridian, and the roots were exclusively sold by weight, the sum of 4,400 florins were once given for an Admiral Leifken. A Semper Augustus is recorded to have been once purchased at the alarming price of \$8,000.

It so happened in the operations of trade between cities, at one period, that barely two roots of the peerless Semper Augustus were supposed to exist in all Holland, which had the effect to so raise the price, that one of them, the enviable property of a gentleman in Amsterdam, sold for 4,600 florins; the other was at Hærlém. Twelve acres of land in one instance were given for a little fibre of the choice Semper. Munting speaks of a person of his acquaintance who made 60,000 florins in four months by successful operations in tulip roots.

Such was the extravagance, and such the singular infatuation of the most intelligent classes, that the common affairs of life were seriously neglected in the swift pursuit of fortune through this new channel.

Merchants possessed a vast or limited capital, in proportion to the magnitude or insignificance of their tulip roots. Daughters were portioned with a few ounces magnificently, and noblemen of the highest consideration and family importance vested their possessions in a perishable vegetable that could be carried in a teacup. When the bubble burst, and the roots suddenly fell in public estimation, abject poverty stared the nation in the face.

It is related that an English sea captain had occasion to call at the residence of a distinguished capitalist at an early hour of the morning, accompanied by one of his sailors in the capacity of a servant, who told Jack that he might walk in minheer's beautiful garden till he was ready to return. After admiring the regularity of the walks, the extreme beauty of the shrubbery, and the flowers that bordered the neatly swept paths, he noticed a slender stem of a plant which he took to be an onion; without hesitation, he pulled it up and devoured it, but discovered that he had mistaken its character on chewing it. Directly after, the man of the house came into the garden to gratify the English stranger with a sight of the basis of his acknowledged wealth. On discovering the fact of the destruction of his tulip, he exclaimed in an agony of mind, "I am ruined! I am ruined!?" In fine, the tulip-root mania was a high-handed species of stock gambling, almost without a precedent in the annals of the world. The Mississippi Scheme for embodying the wealth of the globe in a few favored hands, as it were, and the South Sea Bubble, although equally interesting in their effects on the condition of trade, and the morals of the people involved in the speculation, will not compare, in point of historical effect, with the tulip mania of industrious, plodding Holland, from 1634 to 1637.

Thus, we discover that from the remotest ages, men have placed not only a high, but a specific value on gold and silver, as the signs of personal possessions, and the consent of the nations of the earth is still in favor of maintaining the original device of representing wealth in the same manner; and the spirit of all legislation has had reference to securing and perpetuating in them an intrinsic value. When a daring innovation has been made to subvert the established order of things in this respect, there has invariably been a secret design of taking from the people, under the sanction of law, an acknowledged good, for the express purpose of giving them in exchange something better. But on analyzing the motive by the sure test of historical truth, it is apparent that deception, knavery, and a morbid craving for that which is ostensibly despised, is invariably interwoven with these attempted revolutions.

At last, in the progress of national events, when the heavy money began to be considered inconvenient and burdensome in extensive mercantile activity and intercourse with distant provinces or countries, only to be approached by crossing sections of an ocean, the genius of invention was called upon to propose a plan attended with less risk to the owner.

Iron was too plenty to be precious—roots were perishable—and copper, tin, and brass, belonged to the arts everywhere; under such circumstances, the ingenuity of the Venetians enabled them to establish a depot for the safe keeping of legalized coin in great quantities. The actual owners of this deposit issued a paper note, on which they stipulated to pay as many ounces, pounds, pennyweights, or florins, as the case might be, to the person to whom it belonged, whenever he might choose to pre-

sent it. This was the beginning of a paper currency, and the origin of the banking system of our times. The bills thus constructed would be conveyed with ease and safety under circumstances in which the traveller could not carry a large sum of gold or silver. The promptitude with which specie was paid whenever demanded on the face of the note, at once established their credit, and, consequently, changed the whole financial machinery of the world. By this grand discovery, an immediate impetus was given to commerce before unknown; a new energy was manifested wherever the beneficial effects of the novel mode of conveying money was mentioned. In short, almost an entire revolution in the physical and moral world has been brought about by this simple, yet effective operation.

Before the regular construction of safe banking houses, such as are commonly seen in cities, the utmost stretch of mechanical ingenuity was called in requisition, to protect the treasures collected together by rulers and merchants.

To show what perplexities attended the preservation of money against the cunning and adroitness of thieves, in the first stages of society, the following account is principally collected from the biography of an Egyptian prince, Rhampsinitus, by the father of history, Herodotus. His description of a treasury house is, perhaps, the oldest on record. When the fact is remembered that it was written by a man born in the 73d Olympiad, or 2,325 years ago, nothing is lost in interest, even were it wholly untrue, inasmuch as it illustrates the powers of the human mind in the region of fiction, at a period that now seems like the infancy of mankind. The story is substantially as follows:—

“The same instructors further told me, (alluding to the priests with whom he discoursed,) that Proteus was succeeded by Rhampsinitus: he built the west entrance of the temple of Vulcan. In the same situation he also erected two statues, twenty-five cubits in height.”

This prince possessed such an abundance of wealth, that, far from surpassing, none of his successors ever equalled him in affluence. For the security of his riches, he constructed a stone edifice, connected with his palace by a wall. The man whom he employed, with a dishonest view, so artfully disposed of one of the stones, that two, or even one person might easily remove it from its appropriate place.

In this building, when completed, the king deposited vast treasures. Some time after, when the artist found his end approaching, he called his two sons before him, and informed them in what manner, and with what intention, he had placed a moveable stone, that gave entrance into the central depository of the treasury house. And now, being confident that approaching death would deprive him of profiting, as originally intended, by a personal entrance, he therefore confided to them the choicest secret, with a view to their future emolument, should their circumstances ever compel them to make use of this knowledge. A strange state of the public morals, to be sure, when a dying father encourages his children to become thieves and robbers!

He then minutely explained the particular situation of the pivoted stone; gave minutely its dimensions, by the observance of which, they might at any instant become masters of his majesty's treasure.

On the death of the father, though, perhaps, under no impulse of necessity, the sons were prompted by an insatiable curiosity to try their luck—

to ascertain if all they had heard, it would seem, was actually true. Under the cover of a dark night, they visited the building, discovered the moveable stone, made an entrance, and returned home with a surprising sum of money.

It is worthy of remark that in this narrative we are positively assured of the existence of a coinage in Egypt, according to the priests, many centuries before the precious metals assumed any such forms at Rome.

As soon as the king entered the apartment the next morning, one of his regular habits, he noticed with astonishment that the vessels that contained money the day before were materially altered in appearance; and what surprised him beyond measure, was the fact that the seals on the door, renewed frequently, were unbroken, and all the customary entrances remained perfectly secured.

He could not direct his suspicions against any one of the royal household attendants, and as for gaining admission in any other way, it was conceived impossible. Entrances however were several times repeated, and the king witnessed the gradual diminution of the money and jewels, without being able to account for the mystery of their abstraction.

Finally, in order to effect a discovery of the thief, cunningly devised traps were placed near the holding vessels. The robbers came as before. One of them moved cautiously along, as usual, on former visits, in advance of the other, where he was secured by the traps in a twinkling of an eye. After deliberating upon his condition, and being satisfied of the impossibility of extricating himself, or being liberated by the brother, he saw instinctively, that the only way of preserving one life, was to sacrifice the other. With a strange presence of mind, he begged to be killed instantly, and charged the trembling brother not to be content with depriving him of life, but as his body could not be disengaged from the apparatus, to flee with the head, as the last and only means of preventing his own detection, and consequently, the death and destruction of the entire family.

Unnatural as it may appear, he decapitated the captured prisoner, and made an immediate exit with the head, leaving the body in the trap, closed up the opening, and returned home.

At daylight Rhamsinitus again walked in to inspect the urns—when lo! the first object that greeted his amazed eyes, was the headless body of a man, standing upright in the faithful machine, not the least alteration being perceived in any partition, or the strongly bolted doors. This confounded him more than any thing else. In this perplexity, he commanded the dead body to be suspended upon the outside, towards the high way, strictly enjoining it upon a number of trusty guards to seize and bring into his presence any one who discovered symptoms of compassion, or sorrow at the horrible exhibition.

The mother of the young man, on being made acquainted with the fatal result of the night's adventure, became exceedingly exasperated at the surviving son, and declared that unless he forthwith procured the body from its ignominious exposure, she would go herself to the king and disclose all the circumstances of the robbery.

Driven almost to madness with such a prospect of accumulating danger, the survivor endeavored to alter the distracted mother's determination by appeals to her maternal affection, but without the least ray of success. To save his own life, therefore, he resorted to a singular expedient.

Having procured some asses, they were laden with wine put up in the

ancient method, in sacks made of the skins of animals. The animals were driven near the spot where the soldiers were stationed. As soon as he had approached near enough to be noticed, a peg adroitly fixed in the mouth of a sack was started, and the wine consequently began to flow pretty freely from the orifice. He commenced beating himself and crying out vehemently with pretended distress, at the loss. The soldiers perceiving the accident, ran with vessels to save what they could of the delicious beverage, which they considered a clear gain to themselves.

At first, with apparent anger, he reproached them for their unprincipled conduct, but gradually listened to their endeavors to console him for the misfortune. The asses were then leisurely led out of the road, apparently to secure the leak. A brisk conversation, mutually agreeable, followed. He affected to be delighted with the drollery of one of the guards, to whom he gave a generous draught of wine, and with his companions he sat down to drink,—insisting that the generous ass driver should bear them company.

As previously anticipated, the wine produced its specific effects, and the whole of them became exceedingly drunk and fell into a profound slumber. Under the advantage of nightfall, the robber adroitly took down the body, placed it in one of the sacks, and before leaving the scene of the exploit, in derision, shaved the right cheek of the quiet guards, and returned home in safety with the object of his research.

The mother was reconciled to fate, and so far as she was concerned, no further mention is made of her in the narrative of Herodotus. Not so, however, with the king; when he was told what had happened, how the body had been clandestinely removed in the presence of a select band of vigilant guards, he was both enraged and marvel-struck at a recital of the incident; but in no way relinquished the idea of detecting the bold villain who had put his royal power at defiance. He renewedly set his ingenuity at work to detect him, and next adopted the following stratagem. The king commanded that a beautiful daughter, a princess on whom he doated with paternal solicitude, should seat herself in a magnificent apartment, alone, and a proclamation was made that whoever related the most extraordinary adventure in which he had been personally engaged, should become the son-in-law of the king. Each candidate was permitted to enter alone. A part of the story, of an incredible character, is here omitted. She had been previously instructed, in case any clue to the robbery of the treasury was discoverable, or the theft of the headless body, to seize the person, and give an alarm. The injunction was faithfully obeyed. The daring rogue who had already baffled Rhamsinitus more than once, could not forbear another attempt for the mere gratification of a mischievous propensity of his nature. To begin, he cut off an arm from the body of the murdered brother, at the shoulder, concealed it under a cloak, carelessly worn, and in turn gained admission to the princess.

When asked the question that was propounded to each new-comer, what he had done that was remarkable? he replied, "that the most wicked thing that he had ever done, was cutting off the head of a brother, who was caught in a snare in the king's treasury. The most artful thing, was making the guards drunk, and by that means effecting the removal of the dead body from the treasury wall." On hearing this, the princess at once seized him, but caught hold of the supernumerary arm, made fast to the cloak.

Both were slipped off, and the rogue made his escape from her presence. When the attendants came in, lo! there was a cloak and one arm of a man, which when the king saw, he was, if possible, more puzzled than ever. Confounded by these repeated displays of an ingenious, though unknown rascal, information was extensively circulated, that if the bold offender would come fearlessly into his majesty's presence, he would not only grant a free, unconditional pardon, but would liberally reward him besides.

Trusting to the royal word, the thief made his appearance. Rhamsinitus was delighted with him, believing his transcendent skill in the art of deception beyond parallel. The king conceived the Egyptians superior in subtlety to all the world, but this man far excelled all his countrymen.

Paper currency or paper money, is a department of political economy developed in modern times to its fullest extent. Its advantages and disadvantages are variously estimated by the community, and consequently there are ardent friends and bitter opposers to this excellent, though greatly abused project for facilitating extensive mercantile, as well as the minor operations of trade in our own and other countries.

Arguments, almost irresistible in themselves, might be adduced, to show the advantages resulting from an issue of paper money, to every individual of a nation, when the contract between the bank and the people has been rigidly maintained.

On the other hand, testimony apparently no less cogent, based upon the actual experience of immense losses, when the flood-gates of loosely guarded banking corporations are widely opened, is arranged to prove that nothing short of a strictly metallic currency can safely be tolerated in any government, whether elective or hereditarily despotic. In a word, in the United States, there are two great parties in a state of activity, so thoroughly divided on this important question, that the issue is necessarily involved in the obscurity of the future.

Any want of good faith in a bank to redeem its notes at sight, at once begets alarm, and evils of an exciting character are suddenly produced. An agitation arising from that cause, cannot be readily allayed; yet it is neither philosophical, politic, nor right to condemn a principle because errors have been discovered in the application of it to human society,—any more than it would redound to the sense of justice in a state to execute every inhabitant of a particular district, because one of them had been found guilty of a great crime.

The revolutionary struggle was wholly sustained by the issue of continental paper money—without which, that greatest and most masterly achievement of civil liberty, it is believed, could not have been completed. Fortunately, its rapid depreciation did not take place till the war had rescued the country from foreign control, or fear of further molestation. It was then apparent that congress had not the ability to redeem the bills, and it is even now doubted whether the originators and principal dramatis personæ in that most wonderful of all national emancipations, seriously entertained the expectation of doing so in future days of prosperity.

By the practical operation of the device, the country was saved, but thousands of brave estimable patriots and their families, who bore the burden of service and deprivation, were utterly ruined.

With that fatal crisis—fatal to the popularity of paper money, at least with one party—commenced that systematic hostility and prejudice which

has so pointedly shown itself on various occasions ever since. Still, however, accurate financiers discover in the modern banking system, with all its glaring defects, the source of widely extended prosperity. Without its facilities, the merchant would soon find himself circumscribed to narrow limits ; and with an exclusively hard money currency, in the present character of trade, grow poor while his coffers were filled with the precious metals.

Our object being to give an historical account of the coinage of money, simply, and not to dilate upon the policy or impolicy of measures which have raised a formidable partisan feeling between the honest and patriotic over the Union, we here leave the subject, for the commencement of another chapter, whenever events shall furnish new materials.

ART. III.—THE PHILOSOPHY OF STORMS.*

No class of men, we believe, is more deeply interested in the subject of storms than that which makes up the chief part of our readers. The same winds which waft to the storehouse of the merchant the treasures of distant climes, often, in their angrier moods, put a sudden termination to his brightest prospects, and in a single hour of tempest dissipate the earnings of many years. The mercantile community will not, therefore, deem it out of place if we call their attention to the very novel and original views of our countryman, Mr. Espy, who has just published a volume containing a full exposition of his theory of storms, together with a large amount of facts which he has collected in the course of his researches on winds, rain, hail, barometric fluctuations, &c. We have looked over its pages with an interest and gratification which we seldom feel in the perusal of a work on scientific subjects, and are constrained to say that what little of prejudice had been excited against the author, by the manner in which his name became so generally known to the public, speedily vanished before the strong facts and logical deductions which he has brought together, in support of his very simple and beautiful explanation of the phenomena of nature in the production and development of storms.

Franklin was, we believe, the first to discover that our great northeast storms "travel against the wind." A violent rain having set in at Philadelphia from the northeast, he naturally enough supposed that the storm came from that direction, and was greatly surprised, on consulting the papers from New York and Boston, to find that it commenced raining at New York several hours after the storm set in at Philadelphia, and that the time of its reaching Boston was still later. The same anomaly was also observed by Dr. Mitchell : but it remained for Mr. Redfield, of New York, to establish, by the most satisfactory proofs, the route pursued by these storms. In his papers on this subject he has fully demonstrated that they often originate in the Windward Islands of the West Indies, where they are mostly small and round, and progress in a curve towards the

* *The Philosophy of Storms*, by James P. Espy, A. M., Member of the American Philosophical Society, and Corresponding Member of the National Institute, Washington. Boston : Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1841. 8v. pp. 552.

northwest, enlarging as they advance, and at latitude 30 inclining more to the north. Beyond this they curve to the northeast, and as far as he has been able to trace them, they pursue a direction more or less towards the east.

Mr. Redfield has also attempted to show that in all our great storms, the wind gyrates in the form of a whirlwind; and in this he has been followed on the other side of the Atlantic by Col. Reid, who has published a volume full of interesting details on the subject, in which he attempts to develop the law of storms by means of facts with a view to practical use in navigation. But neither of these gentlemen, so far as we know, have succeeded in tracing this supposed gyration to its cause, or pointed out the dependence between clouds, winds, hail, and the other phenomena of storms. Mr. Espy has taken a step beyond them, and confidently believes that he has discovered the key which is to unlock all the mysteries of meteorology, and disclose the hidden causes which produce clouds, water spouts, tornadoes, land spouts, variable winds, and barometric fluctuations.

That result of Dr. Dalton's experiments on the aqueous vapor in the atmosphere, by which its amount in any given space may be determined by means of a glass of water and a thermometer, may be said to constitute the basis of Mr. Espy's theory, and therefore requires a passing notice. If the reader will take a tumbler of water of the same temperature as the air, and drop into it a small piece of ice, he will find, as the water cools, that dew will settle on the outside of the tumbler. The temperature at which this dew begins to form is called the dew point: and Dalton found, in the course of his experiments, that when it began to form at 32° fah., the amount of vapor suspended in the air was $\frac{1}{8}$ of the weight of the atmosphere—that when the dew point was at 52° the air contained twice as much vapor as it did at 32° or $\frac{1}{4}$ of the weight of the atmosphere, and that when the dew point was at 73° the air contained four times as much vapor as at 32° or $\frac{1}{2}$ of the weight of the atmosphere.

The dew on the tumbler is condensed from the air by the cold communicated from the tumbler, and it may also be condensed by the same degree of cold produced in a different way. It is found that air is cooled by expansion produced by diminished pressure, and hence, when the receiver of an air pump is rapidly exhausted, and the air within expands sufficiently to cool it down to the dew point, moisture will make its appearance on the sides of the receiver, and an artificial cloud will appear. Mr. Espy supposes that it is precisely in the same way that clouds are formed in the laboratory of nature.

If a dozen feather beds were piled together one above another, the lower ones would be pressed closer than the upper, because they would not only have to sustain their own weight, but also the weight of all those above them. For the same reason the atmosphere which lies next to the surface of the earth, is subjected to much greater pressure than that which is piled up above, and this pressure must gradually decrease as you ascend. It follows then that if a current of air should pass upwards from the surface of the earth, it would be subjected to a constantly decreasing pressure, and would consequently expand: as it expanded it would grow cold, and when it reached the temperature of the dew point, it would begin to condense its vapor into sensible moisture, and thus form a cloud. This process, Mr. Espy contends, takes place constantly in the operations of nature. Certain portions of the air becoming more heated or more highly

charged with aqueous vapor* than others, are thus made specifically lighter, and consequently rise, and when the dew point is high, these up-moving currents do not find their equilibrium until they are sufficiently expanded by the diminished pressure to which they are subjected to reduce their temperature to the point of forming dew, when a cloud will begin to appear.

The reduction of temperature which would thus be produced by the expansion of ascending air, Mr. Espy finds by experiment to be about one degree for every one hundred yards of ascent; and hence, if an up-moving current of air is ever produced in the operations of nature, it is easy to calculate how high it must rise before it begins to condense its vapor into visible cloud. For example: if, in a summer's day, the thermometer stands at 80°, and the dew point is 70°, then air must be cooled 10° before it will begin to condense its vapor into cloud. Consequently, if it cools one degree for every one hundred yards that it rises, then when it attains an elevation of ten hundred yards, it will be cooled down to the point of forming dew, when its vapor will begin to condense, and the base of a forming cloud become immediately visible. The bases of all forming clouds in the same neighborhood should therefore be nearly on the same level.

Again: it is known to every chemist that vapor cannot be converted into water, without releasing a large quantity of caloric, known in technical language as the *caloric of elasticity*, and thus producing a considerable amount of sensible heat. If ice is exposed to heat, caloric combines with it and forms water; if water is exposed to heat, caloric combines with it and forms steam or vapor; and when vapor is converted back to water, this caloric (heat) must necessarily be released; and, according to Mr. Espy, its agency in producing wind, rain, hail, barometric fluctuations, and all the sublime and astonishing phenomena which attend our most violent storms, has hitherto been altogether overlooked. He finds, by calculating according to well known chemical laws, that the *caloric of elasticity* released during the condensation of vapor while a cloud is forming, will expand the air in the cloud about eight thousand cubic feet for every cubic foot of water formed by the process of condensation.

The expansion of the air in a cloud during the formation of water, is also proved by an instrument which Mr. Espy uses, called a Nepheloscope, or cloud examiner. It consists of a glass vessel [b.] communicating with a bent tube [c.] containing mercury, and having a forcing pump [a.] attached to it, by means of which any desirable quantity of air may be pressed into the receiver or glass vessel [b.] When the instrument is charged, the pressure on the inner leg of the mercury forces it up in the outer, and by carefully measuring the difference between the two, a given amount of pressure can be produced. When the air within (which is heated by the pressure) acquires the temperature of the air

* Vapor is five eighths the specific gravity of air.

without, the stop-cock is turned and the air permitted to escape until the mercury in both legs of the bent tube is on a level, when the stop is again closed. Now as the stop is closed at the moment the greatest cold is produced by expansion, the mercury in the outer leg will begin to ascend, and that in the inner leg to descend, and the difference of level at which they settle will indicate the reduction of temperature produced by a given expansion. But what the general reader is chiefly concerned to know in this experiment, is the fact that when moist air is used, and a cloud is formed in the receiver, the mercury in the outer leg of the bent tube is forced up higher than when dry air is used and no moisture is condensed, showing that the *caloric of elasticity causes the air to occupy much more space when it is set free than when it is united to water in the form of vapor.**

If this is true, and it seems to be placed beyond a doubt, then the air within a cloud is both lighter and warmer than that by which it is surrounded. That it is warmer is proved by actual observation as well as by Mr. Espy's experiments. Sausseur tells us that when he was enveloped in a cloud on the side of a mountain, his thermometer rose higher than in the sun; and both Durant and Gay-Lussac note the same fact while passing through clouds in a balloon. The uniform depression of the barometer under large clouds and during all our great storms, would seem also to confirm Mr. Espy's other position, and place beyond a doubt the fact that the air in the cloud is warmer, and therefore lighter than the surrounding atmosphere.

If, then, a cloud can be formed by a current of air moving upwards, and the cloud thus formed is lighter than the circumambient air, it necessarily follows that the equilibrium of the atmosphere must be more or less disturbed by every formation of this character. For if a lofty cloud by the evolution of its latent caloric, makes the air within it warmer and lighter, then will the air around it rush from all sides towards its base, and upwards into its centre; and as the wind in its upward course comes under less pressure, it will become gradually colder until it reaches the temperature of the dew point, when it will begin to condense its vapor, thus feeding the cloud with fresh materials for its expansion and perpetuity, and communicating to it, as it were, a self-sustaining power by which it moves on perhaps for days together, as we often behold in the operations of nature, enlarging as it advances, causing high winds wherever it passes, and fertilizing the earth with its refreshing showers.

"When a cloud begins to form from an ascending column of air, it will be seen to swell out at the top, assuming successively the appearances of 1, 2, 3, generally called cumuli: or, if the upmoving current should be driven out of its perpendicular motion by an upper current of air, the clouds which might then form would be ragged and irregular, called broken cumuli, as 4. These will always be higher than the base of cumuli, but much lower than cirrus. While the cloud continues to form and swell up above, its base will remain on the same level, for the air below the base has to rise to the same height before it becomes cold enough, by diminished pressure, to begin to condense its vapor into water; this will cause the base to be flat, even after the cloud has acquired great perpendicular height, and assumed the form of a sugar loaf. Other clouds, also,

* When dry air is used in the experiment, the temperature, according to Mr. Espy, is reduced about twice as much as when moist air is used.

for many miles around, formed by other ascending columns, will assume similar appearances, and will moreover have their bases all on the same or nearly the same horizontal level; and the height of these bases from the surface of the earth will be greatest about two o'clock, when the dew point and temperature of the air are the greatest distance apart."

1

2

3

4

"When upmoving currents are formed by superior heat, clouds will more frequently begin to form in the morning, increase in number as the heat increases, and cease altogether in the evening, when the surface of the earth becomes cold by radiation. The commencement of upmoving columns in the morning, will be attended with an increase of wind, and its force will increase with the increasing columns; both keeping pace with the increasing temperature. This increase of wind is produced partly by the rush of air on all sides at the surface of the earth towards the centre of the ascending columns, producing fitful breezes; and partly by the depression of air all round the ascending columns, bringing down with it the motion which it has above, which is known to be greater than that which the air has in contact with the asperities of the earth's surface. The rapid disturbance of equilibrium, which is produced by *one* ascending column, will tend to form *others* in its neighborhood; for, the air being retarded on the windward side, will form other ascending columns, and these will form other annuli, and so the process will be continued."

But, it may be asked, if the air in a cloud is lighter than that which surrounds it, and in consequence possesses a self-sustaining principle, why *all* forming clouds do not increase till they produce rain? We shall answer this question by another quotation from Mr. Espy's book. In his introduction, on page 16, he says: "Neither can clouds form of any very great size, when there are cross currents of air sufficiently strong to break in two an ascending current, for the ascensional power of the upmoving current will thus be weakened and destroyed. Immediately after a great rain, too, when the upper air has yet in it a large quantity of caloric, which it received from the condensation of the vapor, the upmoving columns which may then occur, on reaching this upper stratum, will not continue their motion in it far, from the want of buoyancy; therefore, they will not produce rain, nor clouds of any kind, but broken cumuli. Besides, as the

air at some distance above the surface of the earth, and below the base of the cloud, is sometimes very dry, and as much of this air goes in below the base of the cloud and up with the ascending column, large portions of the air in the cloud may thus not be saturated with vapor, and, of course, rain in this case will not be produced. These are some of the means contrived by nature to prevent upmoving columns from increasing until rain would follow. Without some such contrivances, it is probable that every upmoving column which should begin to form cloud when the dew point is favorable, would produce rain, for as soon as cloud forms, the upmoving power is rapidly increased by the evolution of the caloric of elasticity."

The cloud which produces water-spouts, land-spouts, and tornadoes, differs somewhat from other clouds, and can be formed only when the dew point is very high, the atmosphere devoid of cross currents, and the air in the neighborhood comparatively quiet, or rather, moving in the direction of the main current above. When these circumstances concur, and a cloud begins to form by an ascending column, there is nothing to prevent its rapid generation, and it shoots upward to a vast height, while it occupies only a small space in a lateral direction. The effects which follow the generation of such a cloud, must necessarily be more or less violent, because the whole force of the cloud is spent on a very small space. Extending upwards to a great height, and being lighter than the surrounding atmosphere, it takes off from the air below much of its accustomed pressure, and the wind consequently presses in towards its base from all sides, and rushes up into the cloud itself with fearful velocity, carrying with it all light substances, uprooting trees, bursting off the roofs of houses, barns, and other buildings, and sometimes lifting into the air heavy timber, animals, and in one instance which we recollect, a cart loaded with potatoes.

As the cloud is small in circumference, and is moved forward with considerable velocity by the main current in the higher region of the atmosphere, its progress brings it suddenly over the place which is to be the scene of its devastation; the accustomed pressure of the atmosphere is removed almost instantaneously; the barometer falls sometimes as low as two inches in the course of a few minutes, and the effect is analogous to that of an explosion. H. Tooley, who communicated to the secretary of the Albany Institute an account of the Natchez tornado, which took place on the 7th of May, 1840, has called particular attention to this last mentioned circumstance, and cited the following strong cases.

"1. The garret of a brick house occupied by Thomas Armat, Esq., as an office, was closely shut up, both ends bursted outward, and such was the force of the explosive power, that some of the bricks of the windward end were thrown upon a terrace nearly on a level with the end, and at a distance of not less than twenty feet in the face of the storm.

"2. A brick house on the north side of Main street, belonging to John Fletcher, had the leeward gable end thrown out, the windward end remaining uninjured.

"3. The windward gable end of a large house adjoining the Commercial Bank, bursted outward against the face of the storm; the leeward end was uninjured.

"4. The gable ends of a large three story brick house on Franklin street, owned by Rowan and Cartwright, were thrown outward with great force.

"5. The front ends (leeward to the storm) of two brick stores owned by Eli Montgomery, were thrown outward with great force, the windward ends being uninjured.

"6. Another large brick house, near the last just mentioned, owned by Watt, Burke & Co., had the leeward side nearly demolished.

"7. Another brick house adjoining the last mentioned, had the windward gable end thrown outward.

"8. The Theatre, a large brick building, had the entire roof blown off and thrown some ten feet forward, and the walls demolished.

"9. The leeward walls of two front rooms of the Tremont House on Wall street, were thrown outward with great force, without destroying or moving the furniture therein, and where the storm could have no access.

"10. The roof of the fire-proof brick office of the Probate Court, exploded to windward, that side, it is presumed, being the weakest.

"11. The gable ends of a large brick store on Main and Pearl streets, were thrown outward with great force.

"12. The southern side, and the northern and western gable ends of the brick Insurance buildings on Pearl and Market streets, were thrown outward with such force as to nearly demolish the building.

"13. The roof of Dr. Merrill's house on State street was saved by the explosive power bursting open a large trap door in the roof, thereby making an outlet for the expanded air.

"14. The leeward wall of a new wooden house owned by Rhasa Parker, on Washington street, was thrown outward by the explosive power, the windward side end remaining unbroken excepting the glass of the windows."

Professor Johnson in his description of the New Brunswick tornado, which occurred on the 19th of June, 1835, has called attention to the same curious fact. He says: "In a few cases, in which the ridge of a building lay in a northerly and southerly position, the eastern slope of roof was observed to be removed, or at least stripped of its shingles, while the western slope remained entire. Many buildings were likewise observed with holes in their roofs, whether shingled or tiled, but otherwise not much damaged, unless by the demolition of windows. These appearances clearly demonstrated the strong *upward* tendency of the forces by which they were produced, while the half unroofed houses, already mentioned, prove that the resultant of all the forces in action at the moment was not in a perpendicular to the horizon, but inclined to the east. Such a force would apply to the western slope of the roof some counteracting tendency, or relieve it from some portion of the upward pressure. Had there been no other facts to show the powerful rushing of currents upward, the above would, it is conceived, have been sufficient to settle the question, but taken in connection with the circumstance that roofs so removed, were carried to a great height, and their fragments distributed over a large extent along the subsequent path of the storm, that beds and other furniture were taken out of the upper stories of unroofed houses, that persons were lifted from their feet or dashed *upward* against walls; and that in one instance, a lad of eight or nine years old, was carried upward and onward with the wind, a distance of several hundred yards; and particularly that he afterward descended in safety, being prevented from a violent fall by the upward forces, within the range of which he still continued. In connection with

these and similar facts, it seems impossible to doubt that the greatest violence of action was in an upward and easterly direction."

If these surprising results, which have been long the subject of observation, are so easily accounted for on the principles laid down by Mr. Espy, so, also, are all the other phenomena of these wonderful storms. We often hear of sticks, grass, sand, &c., frozen in the hail which falls from one of these clouds, and the curious fact has given rise to much speculation. The solution is now, however, perfectly simple. The current of ascending air which dashes with such fearful velocity upward into the cloud, and carries with it these lighter substances from below, also carries up the water which has been condensed from the saturated air, and throwing all out together at the side of the cloud in the region of congelation, they are frozen together in the form of hail, and descend by their own gravity to the earth. Large sheets of water may also be thrown out and frozen in the same way, which, breaking in their fall, will account for the great hail stones and "pieces of ice" spoken of by Howard, which fell at Salisbury, and for the "pieces of ice" of almost every form which fell during the passage of the Orkney spout in 1818.

Again: it is not uncommon for rain and hail to fall from one of these clouds in two distinct veins. Mrs. Tillinghast of Providence, during the passage of the tornado of 1838, saw two showers descending from the cloud, both of which sloped inward towards the spout which hung from the centre of the cloud below; and M. Pouillet has given an account of a hail storm which travelled from the Pyrenees to the Baltic, in 1788, leaving two veins of hail about fifteen miles apart, in which space there was a great rain. The eastern vein was about seven miles in width; the western about twelve, and on the outside of both was also a strip of rain. This storm progressed at the rate of about fifty miles per hour; the hail fell in no one place for more than eight minutes: the largest of them weighed eight ounces. We copy the chart of this storm below, as it appeared in the memoirs of the French Academy. A. A. are veins of rain; B. B. are veins of hail.—(*For Chart, see next page.*)

Mr. Espy, in his remarks on these singular phenomena, says:—"If I had made this storm myself, it would be said that I had made it to illustrate my theory. For it is manifest that the outspreading of the air above, will, in many cases, carry with it the hailstones; and those which are least the farthest, and these smaller hailstones on the outside of the bands, will melt before they reach the earth, while the larger hailstones, falling more swiftly, and having more ice to melt, may reach the earth in the form of hail. Thus the two veins of hail, and the rain on the outside of them, are manifestly accounted for; it is not quite so plain why it should only rain in the middle. Nevertheless, if we consider that the vortex moved with a velocity of fifty miles an hour from the southwest to the northeast, we will readily perceive that, as it would require perhaps twenty or thirty minutes for the drops of rain to be carried up to their greatest elevation, and to fall down to the earth, during which time the upmoving column would move forward twenty or twenty-five miles, neither hail nor rain could appear in front of the vortex, and as it could not fall in the middle of the spout, being prevented by the force of the ascending air, whatever fell between the two bands of hail must have descended in the hinder part of the ascending column, where it would not be likely to descend, on account of its upper part leaning forward."

These lofty clouds, whether formed over land or water, when the dew point is very near to the temperature of the air, appear to let down from their bases a tongue of vapor in the form of an inverted cone, which has been called a spout. Mr. Espy, in his explanation of this phenomenon, says:—"If, however, the air is very hot below, with a high dew point, and no cross currents of air above to a great height, then, when an up-moving current is once formed, it will go on and increase in violence as it acquires perpendicular elevation, especially after the cloud begins to form. At first the base of the cloud will be flat; but after the cloud becomes of great perpendicular diameter, and the barometer begins to fall considerably, as it will do from the specific levity of the air in the cloud, then the air will not have to rise so far as it did at the moment when the cloud began to form, before it reaches high enough to form cloud from the

cold of diminished pressure. The cloud will now be convex below, and its parts will be seen spreading outwards in all directions, especially on that side towards which the upper current is moving, assuming something of the shape of a mushroom. In the mean time, the action of the in-moving current below, and upmoving current in the middle, will become very violent, and if the barometer falls two inches under the centre of the cloud, the air, on coming in under the cloud, will cool by diminished pressure about ten degrees, and the base of the cloud will reach the earth, if the dew point was only eight degrees below the temperature of the air at the time the cloud began to form. The shape of the lower part of the cloud will now be that of an inverted cone with its apex on the ground, and when a little more prolonged and fully developed, it will be what is called a tornado if it is on land, and a water-spout if at sea."

Mr. Espy observes that there is a tendency in one of these clouds to form another, and the second has a tendency to form a third, and so on, till a number are in operation at the same time. The cause of this he very happily explains, but our limits will not allow us to follow him. Lieut. Ogden gives an account of seven of these spouts seen at one time, in the edge of the Gulf Stream, in May, 1820, which we copy, together with the annexed cut.

He says:—"The atmosphere was filled with low, ashy-colored clouds, some of which were darker underneath than others, and from these the water-spouts were generally formed, each one from a separate cloud. In some instances, they were perfectly formed before we observed them, but, in others, we could see a small portion of the cloud, at first extend downward, in the shape of an inverted cone, and then continue to descend, not very rapidly, until it reached the water. In other instances, however, we observed that this conical appearance of a portion

of the cloud did not always result in the perfect formation of a water spout. Several times we saw the cone project, continue for a short time stationary, then rise again slowly, and disappear in the clouds. This would, in some cases, occur two or three times to the same cloud; but, eventually, a larger and darker cloud would descend, and result in forming the visible spout, as above mentioned."

It will be seen at a glance, that the principle on which Mr. Espy explains the phenomena of nature in the production and development of storms, requires the convergence of the winds towards a common centre or line at the base of the cloud. In this he differs materially from Mr. Redfield, who has been at great pains to show that all storms are whirlwinds, and that the air moves around from right to left, or contrary to the hands of a watch. On this point there is still much controversy, but we have no room to enter on the merits of the discussion in this article, and shall content ourselves with exhibiting some of the facts on which Mr. Espy relies to establish this, one of the main pillars of his theory.

As the violent action which attends tornadoes is generally confined to very narrow limits, these storms seem to furnish the best means for testing the truth of these different theories. It is, we think, clear that if the wind moves around a common axis in the form of a whirl, that the trees which are thrown down on the borders of the storm should lie parallel to its path, while those which fall in the centre should be left in a transverse position, or at least be thrown outwards and forwards on one side, and outwards and backwards on the other. Now it would seem from a great variety of testimony that the trees in these violent storms are not prostrated in the above named direction.

President Bache, of Girard College, after having carefully taken the direction in which the trees fell in the New Brunswick tornado with a mariners' compass, says:—"I think it entirely made out, that there was a rush of air in all directions at the surface of the ground towards the moving meteor; this rush of air carrying objects with it. The effects all indicate a moving column of rarefied air, without any whirling motion at or near the surface of the earth."

Professor Loomis,* of the Western Reserve College, after drawing a map of the trees and buildings which fell in a hurricane that passed over Stowe in Ohio, comes to a similar conclusion. "It will," he says, "then appear from an inspection of the diagram, that in the midst of some disorder there was a degree of uniformity. Thus upon either border of the track the trees all incline towards some point in the centre of the track. There is not an example of a tree being turned outwards from the track, nor even one which lies in a direction parallel to it." He afterward adds,—“We have now established, by a fair deduction, that there was a powerful current of air from the opposite sides of the track towards some point in the centre of the track, and that here there was also a powerful current upward.”

Professor Olmsted,† of Yale College, in his account of the New Haven tornado, which occurred on the 31st of July, 1839, says:—"The first great fact that strikes us, is, that all the trees and other objects that mark the direction of the wind which prostrated them, are, with a very few ex-

* Professor Loomis is not an advocate of Mr. Espy's theory.

† Professor Olmsted is not a believer in Mr. Espy's theory

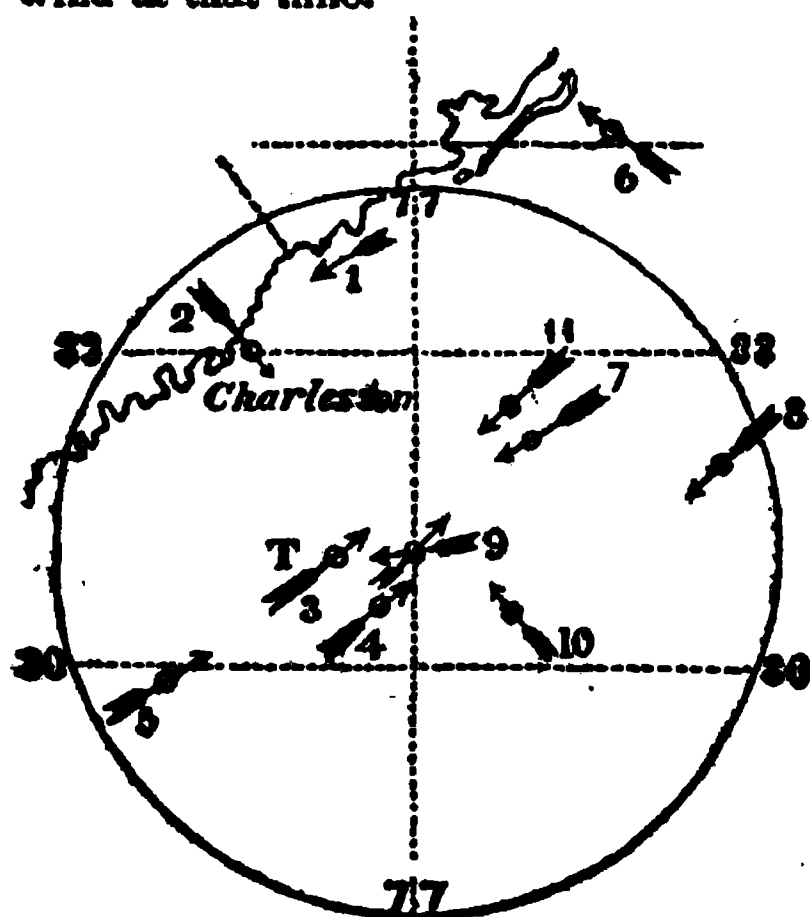
ceptions, turned inwards on both sides towards the centre of the track; while near the centre, the direction of the prostrate bodies is coincident with that of the storm."

Professor Forshay in his account of the Natchez tornado is equally in point. He declares that "the nearer the axis of the tornado, the nearer were their bearings parallel with that axis, and the more remote, the nearer perpendicular, while those that point to the direction from which the storm came, or cross a line perpendicular to the axis, *lie beneath* those that point in the forward direction of the same."

We may mention also, that the storm which occurred in France, of which we have given a chart in the former part of this article, could not possibly have been of the whirlwind character. Had the wind moved in a whirl, the hail which fell during its progress, must have been scattered over the whole area of the storm, and not been deposited in two veins for many miles as we have seen. If the whirlwind theory is correct, therefore, this storm at least must have been a wonderful exception to the general law.

But Mr. Espy does not rely alone on the direction of fallen trees in tornadoes to prove the centripetal course of the wind in storms. By means of observers in different sections, he has been enabled to surround some of our great northern storms, and has satisfied himself that the same law uniformly prevails. We can only make a few selections from the great number which we find recorded in the volume before us.

The following diagram represents a destructive storm which swept along our southern coast in the middle of August, 1837. The facts respecting it were collected by Col. Reid, but Mr. Espy finds that they maintain his own views, although recorded by an advocate of the whirlwind theory. The map represents the position of the storm as it was at noon, on the 18th of August, and the arrows are intended to show the direction of the wind at that time.

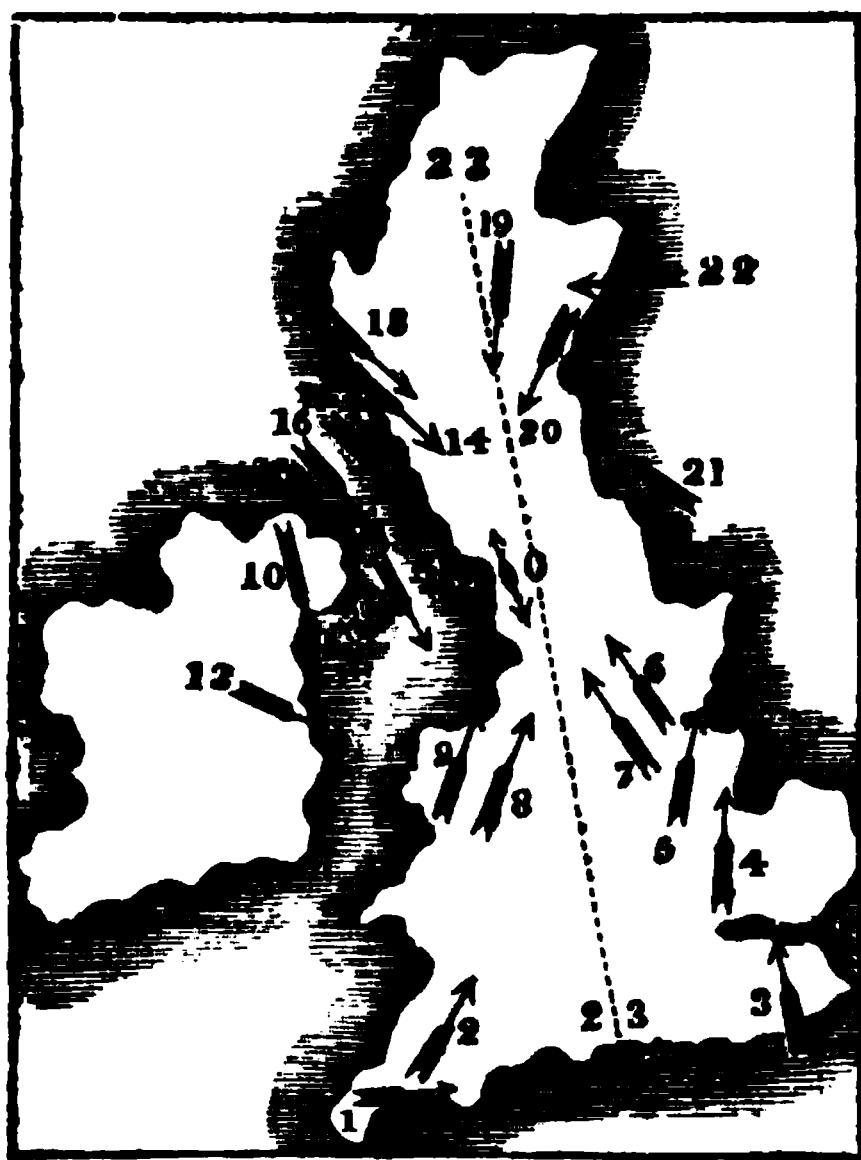


1. Wind at Wilmington, on P. M., of 18th.
2. Oglethorp on 18th.
3. West Indian, all 18th, from 2, A. M.
4. Rawlins all 18th, from 2, A. M.
5. Ida, all day of 18th.
6. Penelope on P. M., of 18th.
7. Yolo till 8, P. M., of 18th.
8. Westchester on 18th.
9. Duke of Manchester till P. M., of 18th.
10. Delaware on 17th, and probably on 18th, changing round to westward on 20th.
11. Cicero on 18th.

Mr. Espy observes: "I have culled out of this storm, that portion of time in which I find the greatest number of simultaneous observations, and I have exhibited on the annexed wood-cut the localities of all the ships within the boundaries of the storm, whose latitudes and longitudes could be ascertained with any degree of certainty, with arrows, exhibiting the

course of the wind. The time is noon of the 18th of August, 1837. At this time, the Duke of Manchester was only a few miles N. E. of the centre of this storm; for some time in the afternoon, the centre of the storm passed nearly over her, when the wind changed pretty suddenly S. W. At this time, and for some seven or eight hours both before and after, all those ships which were laboring in the most violent part of the storm, had the wind blowing towards a central space of no great magnitude. This settles the question of a violent centripetal motion of the wind in this storm, in conformity with the five previously examined, and also with the twelve investigated by the Joint Committee of the American Philosophical Society and Franklin Institute, and with not less than fourteen land-spouts which have already been examined, in all of which the trees were thrown with their tops inwards—and when any are thrown across each other, those which are underneath, are uniformly found to be thrown inwards and backwards, and those on the top, to be thrown inwards and forwards, just as they should be, if the wind blows inwards. Whereas, if the wind is centrifugal, many of the trees should have the tops thrown outwards on both sides of the path."

The following chart represents the course of the wind in the storm which occurred in Great Britain on the 17th of August, 1840.



0. Workington, changed at 10, A. M., from S. S. E. to N. N. W.—1. Plymouth, W. on 17th, S. W. on 16th.—2. Pill-Bristol, S. W., A. M.—3. London, southwardly, on 17th.—4. Lynn, heavy S. till noon, then S. W., more moderate.—5. Hull, S. S. W., strong.—6. Leeds, S. E. or S. S. E., strong from 8, A. M., to 1, P. M., clouds at this time moving from S. W.—7. Sheffield, S. S. E. all day, next day, E. Strong on 17th.—8. Hyde, near Manchester, S. W., in the morning; west in P. M.; strong gale all day.—9. Liverpool, S. W., A. M., N. Westerly, P. M., strong.—10. Belfast, N. by W. strong gale.—11. Point of Ayre Light, N. W. gale.—12.

Corsewell Light, N. N. W., storm.—13. Dublin, W. N. W.—14. Largs, heavy from N. N. W. from 7, A. M. till 8, P. M.—15. Kynure Light, N. W. gale.—16. Pladda Light, N. W. breeze.—17. Greenock, N. W. and N.—18. Lismore Light, N. W. gale.—19. Dumferline, N. and N. E. till 2, P. M. increasing to a gale.—20. Edinburgh, N. N. E. strong.—21. Berwick, S. by E. to S. E., strong.—22. Aberdeen, E. all day, strong.—23. Middle line of the storm on morning of 17th.

To the mariner it is of immense importance to discover the true law of storms. As his life and property will often depend upon the theory which

he has adopted, and which governs him in the control of his vessel when the element on which he sails is in dread commotion. If the course which storms pursue may be known, and it be true that the wind drives in on all sides towards a common centre, the seaman has an unerring guide for his conduct, which, if generally known, must greatly tend to the preservation of property and life. We have been informed by an American, who was present at Mr. Espy's lectures in Liverpool, that a gentleman of high standing, in his admiration of the very beautiful theory which the lecturer had been expounding, took occasion to observe, that if the masters of vessels which sailed from Liverpool on the memorable 6th of Jan., 1839, had known what Mr. Espy had clearly taught them that night, not one of them would have been lost, for they would not have put to sea in the face of such formidable indications of a storm. This observation will serve to show the importance of the subject to all who traverse the ocean.

It is known, that Mr. Espy himself has the greatest faith in the theory which he has put forth, and on several occasions has predicted the approach of a storm, and published his predictions in the papers before the storm appeared. If the doctrines which he teaches are true, this becomes a very simple matter. The barometer which falls in the centre of the storm, rises all around its borders and particularly before it, because as the cloud swells out at its sides, it presses together the surrounding atmosphere and thus increases its weight. The rise of the barometer then will indicate the presence of a storm in some region at no great distance, and if the wind at the same time sets in towards the point from which storms are known to come, it will scarcely be possible to mistake the result.

We are gratified to see that Mr. Espy's views have attracted much attention among the scientific men of the old world. The French Academy have given his theory the fullest sanction, and we cannot resist the temptation to place their report upon our pages.

Report of the Academy of Sciences, (Paris,) on the labors of J. P. Espy, concerning Tornadoes, &c.

Committee, Messrs. Arago, Pouillet, Babinet reporter.

"Messrs. Arago, Pouillet, and myself, have been appointed by the Academy to make a report to it upon the observations and theory of Mr. Espy, which have for their object the aerial meteors known by the names of storms, water-spouts and tornadoes, which cause so much destruction on land and sea in the vicinity of the Gulf of Mexico. These storms are produced in the same manner in every part of the globe, when a few given circumstances concur in one place.

"The labors of Mr. Espy have already considerably occupied the attention of the learned world, and may be considered under three different points of view. First, the facts which he has recognised and substantiated, and the proofs which support them; second, the physical theory, by which he explains them, and the conclusions which he deduces from that theory; third, the observations which are yet to be made according to this theory, based upon facts, and the practical rules which the mariner, the farmer, and the meteorologist will obtain from it; the two former for their own benefit, the latter for science, which is useful to all.

"The facts which result from the numerous documents which Mr. Espy has placed in the hands of the committee, are the following: the motion of the air in the meteor under consideration, called tornado or water-spout, if it is violent, and of small extent; a storm, if it covers many degrees of the earth's surface; the motion of the air, we say, is always convergent, either towards a single centre, when the tornado has a circular form and limited extent, or towards a diametrical line, when the tornado or storm is of a lengthened form, and extends over many hundred leagues.

"If the tornado is very small, in which case the violence of the motion of the air is greater, a cloud is frequently seen in the centre, whose point descends more and more until it touches the earth or sea. Water-spouts are small tornadoes, and the force of

these meteors in the south and east of the United States is such, that trees are carried up in the air, and the heaviest objects are overturned, displaced, and transported. Finally, we have only to call to mind the well known storms of the Antilles, which change even the form of the ground over which they pass. We will adopt the technical word tornado to designate the meteor in question, whatever may be its extent or violence. China and the neighboring seas, Central Africa, and the southwest part of the Indian Ocean, are, like the West Indies, the theatre of meteors of the same nature, and not less disastrous.

"In observing at the same moment the force and direction of the wind, which is shown by the overturned trees, the displaced movable objects, in a word, by the traces impressed upon the soil, Mr. Espy proves that in the same instant the motion of all parts of the air which is reached by the tornado is tending towards a central space, point, or line, so that if the wind on one side of the meteor blows towards the east, it blows with the same violence towards the west on the other side of the tornado, and frequently at a very short distance from the first place, whilst in the centre an ascending current is formed of astonishing rapidity, which, after having risen to a prodigious height, spreads out on every side to a certain limit, which we shall soon determine by the observations of the barometer. This ascending current loses its transparency at a certain height, and becomes a true cloud of the kind called cumulus, the base of which is horizontal, and whose height is determined by the temperature and humidity of the atmosphere. The central cloud of the tornado is constantly reproduced, in proportion as it is carried off by the rapid current of the centre; and, according to Mr. Espy, when rain or hail proceeds from this meteor, which is generally the case, it is the cold, caused by the expansion of the air carried into the higher regions of the atmosphere, which condenses the water. Electricity, when it appears in the tornado, is not, according to Mr. Espy, essential to the phenomenon.

"The existence of an ascending current of extreme violence once placed beyond doubt by the phenomena of the rising of the air, and its motion towards a centre or towards the great diameter of the oblong space occupied by the tornado, being well established by facts, Mr. Espy examines the progressive movement of the whole meteor, which is very slow, compared with the velocity of the wind in the mass of air which becomes at each instant a part of the tornado. Mr. Espy shows that near the latitude of Philadelphia, where cirrus clouds, very elevated as is known, move towards the east, the centre of the tornado moves almost always towards the east, as well as in Europe, where the west wind is predominant; whilst, in the inter-tropical regions, (Barbadoes, Jamaica, the north of the Indian Ocean,) the meteor moves towards the west or north-west, following the course of the trade winds. These assertions are also verified with regard to China and the Indian Ocean, according to the maps of Berghous. The barometer, in the centre of the meteor, is sometimes nearly 2.25 of an inch (sixty millimetres) lower than towards its border, and its limit is marked on all its outline by a closed curve, along which the barometer is found to be at its "normale" height, whilst, on the other side of this line, further from the centre, the barometer is observed to rise, which rise in small tornadoes is .08 of an inch, (two millimetres,) but which may be forty or forty-eight hundredths of an inch, (ten or twelve millimetres,) in very extended storms. If the centre of the tornado moves, (which may take place in any direction, when compared with the diametrical line,) and the effects produced by the motion are examined, it is always found that if the meteor has followed in its motion the line of its greatest diameter, the tree which fell the first, indicates a point anterior in the path of the meteor, and the tree which fell last, a posterior point. Thus it is constantly found that the trees which were overthrown with their tops turned towards positions anterior to the centre of the tornado, are covered by trees falling in the direction of the centre at a posterior period. In short, in this same case, the branches of the trees not overthrown growing on the side farthest from the opposite side of the line which the centre of the meteor takes, have followed the wind, and are twisted around the trunk of the trees.

"The circumstances favorable to the sudden production of a tornado, large or small, are, according to Mr. Espy, a warm and humid atmosphere, covering a country sufficiently level and extended, still enough to allow that part of the air which is accidentally the least dense, to rise to a great perpendicular height above the middle of the heated space which is charged with transparent vapor; moreover, in the higher regions, a cold and dry air, whose situation and especially whose density contrasts with that of the ascending current which dilates, cools, loses its transparency by the precipitation of its dampness, keeping notwithstanding a specific gravity less than that of the air which surrounds it, and by its expansion presenting the form of a mushroom or the head of a pine

with or without the prolongation or appendage towards the base, which appendage, cloudy and opaque, shows a space where the expansion and the cold are at their maximum, and where, consequently, the precipitation of vapor commences almost immediately above the ground or the surface of the sea.

"Such are then the principal points which Mr. Espy has obtained from numerous observations. The motion of the air towards the centre of the meteor, the depression of the barometer in the centre, the central ascending current, the formation of cloud at a certain height, and its circular expansion after this cloud has attained a prodigious height, an expansion accompanied with rain and hail, and finally, the motion of the whole meteor, *en masse*; these, I say, are the points which the extensive labors of Mr. Espy, his own observations, and the documents which he has collected, and which he intends publishing immediately in a special work, have placed beyond doubt, and which seem even to have triumphed over every objection, and to have rallied all opinions to his own.

"Let us now see the theory upon which he bases his observations, or rather which is based upon these facts well observed, well proven, and always reproduced in nature with similar circumstances.

"Mr. Espy thinks that if a very extended stratum of warm and humid air at rest, covers the surface of a region of land or sea, and that by any cause whatever, for example a less local density, an ascending current is formed in this mass of humid air, the ascending force, instead of diminishing in consequence of the elevation of the rising column, will increase with the height of the column, exactly as though a current of hydrogen was rising through the common air, which current would be pushed towards the top of the atmosphere, with a force and velocity in proportion to its height. This column of heated air may also be compared to that in chimneys and stove-pipes, of which the draught is in proportion to the height of the pipe containing the warm air. What then is the cause which renders the warm and humid ascending current, lighter in each of its parts than the air which is found at the same height with these different portions of the ascending column?

"This cause, according to the *sufficiently exact* calculations [*tres suffisamment exact*] of Mr. Espy, is the constantly higher temperature which the ascending column retains, and which proceeds from the heat furnished by the partial condensation of the vapor mixed with the air, making this ascending column a true column of heated air, that is to say, of a lighter gas; for the weight of the water which passes into the liquid state, is far from compensating the excess of levity which proceeds from the more elevated temperature which the air preserves. (This weight only equals one fifth of the diminution of the weight in ordinary circumstances.)

"Thus, the higher the column is, the greater is the ascending force, and the rushing in of the surrounding air on all sides will be produced with more energy. To understand this effect better, let us consider a mass of warm and dry air rising in the midst of a colder atmosphere. In proportion as this air rises, it will expand, because of the less pressure which it will experience, and consequently become colder; it will arrive then quickly at an equilibrium both of temperature and pressure with a layer more or less elevated, which it will soon reach, and in which it will remain; but if this only cause of cold, expansion, is overbalanced by a cause of heat, for example the heat furnished by the vapor which is condensing, this air will remain constantly warmer than would have been necessary to attain the same temperature and pressure as the surrounding air. It will then be constantly lighter, and the higher the column, the greater the ascending force.

"The calculations of Mr. Espy show, without the slightest doubt, that the column of damp air regaining in temperature, by the condensing of the vapor, a part of the heat lost by expansion; this column always remains warmer than the air which is at the same height with each of its parts. Finally, Mr. Espy furnishes the exact data which are still wanting to science, by the experiments made upon the temperature which the air preserves by the effect of condensation of the vapor in a closed vessel which he calls a "nephoscope," and in which he compares the thermometrical fall produced in the air by a diminution of superincumbent pressure, to what takes place in nature, whether operating on dry, or employing damp, air. Notwithstanding the influence of the sides of the vessel, every time a light cloud is formed in the apparatus, the temperature undergoes a much less reduction than that which takes place when the point of precipitation of vapor has not been attained, or when the experiment is tried on dry air.

"The theory of Mr. Espy also accounts very well for the formation of a true cloud analogous to the cumulus with horizontal base, from the moment when the warm and damp air has acquired such an expansion, that the cold produced by it will cause a pre-

precipitation of water, and the base of the central cloud of the tornado, if it is horizontal, as is the case in the great meteors of this nature, should be lowered in proportion as the moist air which is carried up is more fully charged with vapor; this base, like that of the cumulus, being of necessity found at the point where the temperature of the ascending current becomes that of the *dew point*, which itself depends evidently upon the degree of dampness of the air. This theory further explains how, in the small tornadoes, whose violence is remarkable, an expansion takes place in the centre of the meteor, at a very small height, sufficient to condense vapor by the cold, and consequently to produce this kind of appendage which particularly distinguishes small tornadoes, or common water-spouts. Let us add that the calculations of Mr. Espy, upon the density of the warm column, its comparative levity, the ascending force of the current, the central depression which is the consequence of it, the rapidity with which the surrounding air rushes towards the place where the pressure is diminished, finally, all the conclusions drawn from the physical data of the phenomena, have been proved and ascertained with sufficient exactness to leave no doubt as to this portion of Mr. Espy's theory.

"One word remains to be said relative to the progressive movement of the meteor. This movement may depend upon an ordinary wind, which, imparting a common motion to the whole atmosphere, would not disturb the ascension of the column of moist air. But as these phenomena are produced suddenly in the midst of a great calm, Mr. Espy thinks that, in accordance with observed facts, the motion of the meteor should be attributed to the winds, which predominate in the upper part of the atmosphere, and that in modern latitudes, this motion should thus take place towards the east, whilst in the equatorial regions this motion should be directed towards the west, as the current of the trade winds. In a word, the slight surcharge which is owing to the spreading out of the air around the top of the meteor, accounts for the trifling elevation of the barometer, which the invasion of the tornado in every place presents, and can even, according to Mr. Espy, serve as a prognostic of it.* Another result is, that beyond the limits of the meteor, a feeble wind ought to be observed, as is the case, whose direction is opposite to that of the air which is violently rushing towards the centre of the tornado.

"The consequences which Mr. Espy deduces from this theory are, that in many localities, in Jamaica for example, the sea breezes cause a motion of the air perfectly analogous to that which constitutes a tornado, and that the results of it are the same, namely, rain and tempest at stated hours, on each day of summer. The same circumstances produce the same effects in other well-known localities, volcanic eruptions, great conflagrations of forests, with the favorable circumstances of tranquillity, heat, and moisture, ought also to produce ascending currents and rain. In the midst of all the theoretical deductions of Mr. Espy, it should be remarked, that a descending current of air never can communicate cold, for this current would become warm by compression in proportion as it should descend, and the meteorological temperature of many places sheltered from the ascending winds, is considerably augmented by this cause. The tempests of sand in many parts of Africa and Asia, although possessing much less violence, owing to the dryness of the heated air, accord perfectly with the theory of Mr. Espy, both as to quantity and the nature of their effects.

"Lastly, let us observe, that if, in tornadoes, the air is absorbed by the lower portion of the column, and not by the higher parts, it is, that the difference between the pressure of the heated column, and that of the surrounding air, is much more marked, as it is considered lower down, in the column of less density and equal elasticity, so that, in the case of an equilibrium, at the lowest point this difference would be precisely the total difference of the whole heated column to the whole column of air of the same height situated around the first. The observations and experiments which have been suggested to Mr. Espy by the study of the phenomena of tornadoes, and the theory he has given of them, merit the most serious attention. It is very evident that science would be much benefited by the establishment of a system of simultaneous observations of the barometer, thermometer, hygrometer, and especially of the anemometer, if at least they could be procured capable of giving with sufficient accuracy the intensity of the wind at the same time with its direction and the time of each variation of force. The influence which electricity exerts in this phenomenon, remains yet to be determined. Mr. Espy thinks that artificial causes—for example, great fires kindled in favorable circumstances of heat, of tranquillity, and humidity—can cause an ascending column of much less violence, the useful results of which would be on the one hand rain, and on the other the

* The reader will recollect that in the "Report," *tornado* is used to signify both large and small storms.

happy prevention of disastrous storms. It will be necessary to see in Mr. Espy's work itself, the further beneficial results to navigation from the views furnished by his theory.

"The different manners in which philosophers, by means of apparatus whose principle of action is the centrifugal force, have imitated water-spouts or small tornadoes, do not appear to us reconcilable with Mr. Espy's theory, which, based upon facts, equally refutes the idea of a whirling motion of the air in the tornado.*

"Here we should compare the theory of Mr. Espy with other theories, anterior or contemporaneous. The labors of Franklin, and of Messrs. Redfield, Reid, and Peltier, would furnish as many excellent observations and parts, or the whole of the phenomena, very well studied. But the extensive discussion which we should have to establish before deciding in favor of Mr. Espy, would lead us too far. Mr. Espy himself, as to the electrical part of the phenomenon, which, however, he regards as only accessory and secondary, acknowledges that his theory is less advanced and less complete than it is with regard to the phenomena of the motion and precipitation of the water, which are, according to him, the base of the production of the meteor.

"Finally, it is proved by the investigations of Mr. Espy, that it will be impossible hereafter to adduce in the mean [*normale*] state of the atmosphere, a descending current of air as a cause of cold, or an ascending current of dry air, a cause of heat. The applications of this theory present themselves in "climatology," but this principle especially discards the idea of explanation of the tornado by the centrifugal force, which would then cause the upper air to descend in the centre of the tornado, which air becoming heated by the augmented pressure, could not allow its own vapor to be precipitated, nor precipitate that of the air with which it came in contact.

CONCLUSION.

"In conclusion, Mr. Espy's communication contains a great number of well-observed and well-described facts. His theory, in the present state of science, alone accounts for the phenomena, and, when completed, as Mr. Espy intends, by the study of the action of electricity when it intervenes, will leave nothing to be desired. In a word, for physical geography, agriculture, navigation, and meteorology, it gives us new explanations, indications useful for ulterior researches, and redresses many accredited errors.

"The committee expresses then the wish that Mr. Espy should be placed by the government of the United States in a position to continue his important investigations, and to complete his theory, already so remarkable, by means of all the observations and all experiments which the deductions even of his theory may suggest to him, in a vast country, where enlightened men are not wanting to science, and which is besides, as it were, the home of these fearful meteors.

"The work of Mr. Espy causes us to feel the necessity of undertaking a retrospective examination of the numerous documents already collected in Europe, to arrange them and draw from them deductions which they can furnish, and more especially at the present period, when the diluvial rains, which have ravaged the southeast of France, have directed attention to all the possible causes of a similar phenomena. Consequently, the committee proposes to the academy to give its approbation to the labors of Mr. Espy, and to solicit him to continue his researches, and especially to try to ascertain the influence which electricity exerts in these great phenomena, of which a complete theory will be one of the most precious acquisitions of modern science.

"The conclusions of this report are adopted."

We have great satisfaction in adding, that Mr. Espy's book is in the very best style of the Boston publications. It is illustrated with numerous engravings; the typography is clean and neat; the paper fine; and, in short, it is every way worthy of the high standing of the publishers who have undertaken to bring it before the public. We commend it with confidence to all the lovers of science, satisfied that they will derive both pleasure and profit from the perusal.

* Philosophical Magazine, for June, 1841. Sir David Brewster says, "the theory of the rotary character of storms was first suggested by Col. Capper, but we must claim for Mr. Redfield the greater honor of having fully investigated the subject, and apparently established the theory upon an impregnable basis."

ART. IV.—SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MERCHANTS.**NOTICE OF THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF JOSEPH MAY.***

Lives of good men all remind us
 We can make our lives sublime,
 And departing, leave behind us
 Footsteps on the sands of time;
 Footsteps, that perhaps another,
 Sailing o'er life's troubled main,
 A forlorn and shipwrecked brother,
 Seeing, shall take heart again.—LONGFELLOW.

MR. MAY belonged to a generation which has now almost wholly passed away. A few yet linger, but they will soon be all gone. He may be regarded as a type and specimen, not indeed of what was most brilliant and distinguished, but of what was most solid and worthy, stanch, honest, upright, and true in that generation. He was a native of Boston; his life was passed in the open sight of his fellow-citizens, and the testimony which we render is only the repetition of the common voice.

His integrity has never been questioned. It passed safely through the trial of adversity and failure in business—a trial which has proved too severe for the strength of many—and was as confidently relied upon after that change as before it. Perfect proof of this is given by the fact that he was called on to fill several offices, which, though not conspicuous, involved important trusts, and supposed implicit confidence, and which were held till repeated intimations of increasing age warned him to resign them.

His ideas and feelings respecting riches, though not perhaps peculiar, were certainly not common. He regarded the gift of property to one's children a questionable good. He has often said, that he knew many promising youth who were stunted in their intellectual and moral growth by the expectation of an inheritance that would relieve them from the necessity of labor. Every man, he would add, should stand upon his own feet, rely upon his own resources, know how to take care of himself, supply his own wants; and that parent does his child no good, who takes from him the inducement, nay, the necessity to do so.†

He thought it well and proper to engage in the pursuit of property in some honest and honorable occupation, as one of the means of unfolding

* In the *Merchant's Magazine* for July, 1841, we published a brief obituary of the late Joseph May, Esq., a merchant of Boston. We had previously requested the Rev. F. W. P. Greenwood, D. D., to prepare a sketch of his life and character, which through the inadvertence of our agent, was not received until quite recently. Several paragraphs of the present sketch, are from the sermon preached by Mr. Greenwood at Kings Chapel, Sunday, March the 7th, 1841, on the death of Mr. May; and the remainder in manuscript, was furnished by a member of the family of the deceased.—*Ed. Mag.*

† In a communication received from the Rev. S. J. May, is an anecdote which deserves preservation, as illustrative of the sentiments of his father.

“When I brought to him my last College bill receipted, he folded it with an emphatic pressure of his hand, saying as he did it: ‘My son, I am rejoiced that you have gotten through; and that I have been able to afford you the advantages you have enjoyed. If you have been faithful, you must now be possessed of an education that will enable you to go anywhere; stand up among your fellow-men; and by serving them in one department of usefulness or another, make yourself worthy of a comfortable livelihood, if no more. If you have not improved your advantages, or should be hereafter slothful, I thank God that I have not property to leave you, that will hold you up in a place among men, where you will not deserve to stand.’”

the faculties, and forming and establishing the character. But he considered it most unworthy of a rational and moral being, to seek after riches as the *chief good*. He utterly despised avarice.

When about thirty-eight years of age, he was stopped in the midst of a very profitable business, in which he had already acquired a considerable fortune, by the result of an ill-advised speculation. He foresaw that he must fail, and at once gave up all his property, "even to the ring on his finger, for the benefit of his creditors." The sufferings which this disaster caused revealed to him that he had become more eager for property, and had allowed himself to regard its possession more highly, than was creditable to his understanding or good for his heart. After some days of deep depression, he formed the resolution, *never to be a rich man*; but to withstand all temptations to engage again in the pursuit of wealth. He adhered to this determination. He resolutely refused several very advantageous offers of partnership in lucrative concerns, and sought rather the situation he held, for more than forty years, in an insurance office, where he would receive a competence only for his family.

When in the midst of his family he seemed to have no anxieties about business, and was able to give his whole mind to the study of his favorite authors, the old English Classics, the best historians, and Paley and Priestley, of whom he was a great admirer.

He almost always read one or two hours in the morning, and as much in the evening. By the devotion of only this time to books, he was able in the course of his life to peruse many volumes of substantial value, of the contents of which his sound understanding and retentive memory enabled him to make readily a pertinent use.

In active benevolence and works of charity, he seems to have been indefatigable and unsurpassed. He was not able to bestow large donations on public institutions, but he was a valuable friend, promoter, and director of some of the most important of them.* His private charities are not to be numbered. Without much trouble he might be traced through every quarter of the city by the foot-prints of his benefactions. Pensioners came to the door of his house as they do in some countries to the gate of a convent. The worthy poor found in him a friend, and the unworthy he endeavored to reform. His aid to those in distress and need was in many cases not merely temporary and limited to single applications, but as extensive and permanent as the life and future course of its object. A family of fatherless and motherless and destitute children, bound to him by no tie but that of human brotherhood, found a father in him, and owe to him, under heaven, the respectability and comfort of their earthly condition. It would appear as if he had expressly listened to the exhortation of the son of Sirach, and had received the fulfilment of his promise: "Be as a father unto the fatherless, and as a husband unto their mother; so shalt thou be as the son of the Most High, and he shall love thee more than thy mother doth."†

* He was particularly interested in the establishment of the Asylum for the Insane, and the Massachusetts General Hospital. He felt sure that these were charities worthy of all he could do to promote them, and he labored for them heartily and effectually.

† "He never," observes his son, "seemed to feel displeased when asked to relieve the necessities of his fellow-beings, and therefore never hastily dismissed their claims, but carefully considered them, that he might give substantial and permanent aid.

"I cannot remember the time, when he was not planning for the benefit of several

As a friend and neighbor, his kind attentions and services were unremitting ;—and how much of the happiness of our daily being is dependent on such attentions and services ! He knew many persons, and suffered himself to forget none. If he had kept a list of them he could not have been more punctual in his remembrances ; and he did keep a list of them in his friendly heart. But though he comprehended many in his generous regards, his strongest affections were still at home, reserved for the few who were nearest, and not dissipated or rendered shallow by the diffusion of his general charity. The stream of his benevolence was wide, but its central channel was deep.

His love of nature was ever fresh and warm. He watched the seasons as they rolled, and found in each much to excite his admiration and love of the great Creator and sovereign Disposer of all. The flowers, the birds, the sunshine, and the storm were objects of his continual notice, and of frequent remarks in his diary. His habit of walking early in the morning, often before sunrise, which he persisted in regularly until about two years since, secured to him a season of daily communion with the beauties of creation and its Author.

His love of children was ardent—and he inspired them with love for himself. It was his wish ever to have some children in his family. Their joyous laugh was music to his ear. After the death of his first born, he felt so lonely that he adopted a boy to supply the vacant place. And even within a few weeks of his decease, the son of a widow was brought by him to a home in his house.

On the services of the church and the ordinances of religion as administered at King's Chapel, he was a constant attendant. And this was because he viewed them in their proper light as the outward supports of order and virtue, and the good helps of piety, and not because he esteemed them as religion in themselves, or substitutes of religion : for if there ever was a man whose piety was practical, whose religion was life-religion, who could not understand or enter into any views of religion which were *not* practical, it was he.

He had borne many sorrows in the course of his protracted pilgrimage, and religion had supported him under them all. His belief in the sure mercies of God and promises of the Saviour was as firm and deeply rooted as the mountains. His faith in a future and better life was as sight. He saw its glories with his eyes, and the more distinctly as he drew nearer to them. Many expressions of his, simply and strongly declaratory of this sight-like faith, dwell, and will always dwell, on the memories of his relatives and most intimate friends.

His frame was so robust, his manner of living so regular, his mind so calm, his whole appearance so promising of endurance, that, aged as he was, even in his eighty-first year, I had thought he would yet continue for a season with us, and come up for many Sabbaths to our solemn assem-

poor or afflicted persons. The last few years of his life were peculiarly blessed by visits from numerous persons, or the children of persons whom he had befriended."

"There was a time when, as he afterward thought, he was not discriminating enough in his charities. The reading of Malthus on Population, and the discussions which arose upon the publication of that work, modified considerably his views of true benevolence. Prevention of poverty seemed to him both more merciful and practicable than the relief of it : and he was therefore continually suggesting to those who were on the verge of poverty, principles of economy and kinds of labor, by which they were enabled to put themselves into a comfortable estate."

blies. But it was not so to be. Till the Sunday before his death, he appeared as usual in his accustomed seat. For a few days afterward, gentle intimations of death were given—hardly alarming to his friends, and not at all so to him, though he perfectly comprehended their meaning. There was some aberration of mind, but no suffering of the body,—and then, to use the words of an old writer on the decease of a venerable prelate, “then he sweetly fell asleep in Christ, and so we softly draw the curtains about him.”

A prominent place should be given, in a sketch of Mr. May's character, to his love of order, his methodical habits, his high estimate of the importance of punctuality. These were conspicuous traits, and they enabled him to accomplish a great deal of business, to attend to a variety of matters, which would have distracted a man without such habits, giving him, at the same time, a real though unobtrusive power of usefulness to his fellow-men, President Quincy has said in his history of Harvard College, that “there is no class of men to whom history is under so many obligations as to those who submit to the labor of keeping diaries.” Mr. May performed a great deal of this sort of labor, because it enabled him to be so continually useful to all about him. His pocket and memorandum books were filled with items, that were often of great convenience, and sometimes of inestimable value to others. To this he was prompted by his spirit of practical benevolence, and was enabled to perform with comparatively little trouble by his habits of regularity and method.

His habits of order and strict method saved him a vast deal of anxious thought about his daily business cares and duties; he always knew exactly the state of his concerns. It required no effort of careful recollection to keep in mind any thing he ought to remember, for he could recur at once to his accounts and memoranda and find all as he left it; so exact was his method, that he could return to his office in utter darkness, find any key in use there, put his hand upon any book or bundle of papers he might wish to examine.

It may be well to mention another of his principles, which he deemed no more than a part of strict honesty. “Live within your income, whatever that may be,” he would often say; “and then you will wrong no one, and will be always independent.” “Should your income cease altogether, or be too narrow for your wants, make known your necessitous situation, and incur no debt but the debt of gratitude.” “It is dishonest to borrow unless you foresee that you shall have the ability to repay the loan; and you should never obtain credit for any article, even a necessary of life, if you know not when or how you shall get the means to pay for it. In this case beg, rather than borrow.”

Knowing as he did the trials and temptations of a merchant's life, he took a lively interest in young men who were just entering upon it. There are not a few who gratefully acknowledge, that to him they are indebted for habits and maxims that have been of essential service to them. Early rising, order, punctuality, living within one's income, the useful occupation of leisure time, he inculcated earnestly upon all. “Few men,” he would say, “are so busy, none should be, as to have no time which they might devote to their moral culture, and the acquisition of useful knowledge. Life was not given to be all used up in the pursuit of what we must leave behind us when we die.”

He used the world without abusing it. He saw much that was beauti-

ful and good here, and he indulged the feelings they naturally awakened. They were to his grateful heart intimations of the character of the heavenly Father, which should not be overlooked. He was sure that the Being who made all these things to gratify and delight us, is full of love; we have nothing to fear from him. If we are ever unhappy, miserable, it must be that we make ourselves so, by not following the course he has marked out for us, by not choosing to become what he has invited, and would enable us to become.

Death had no terrors for him; he often conversed about it as a solemn "event in the being of every man;" but his thoughts did not linger in the dark valley. He seemed to realize with Abraham Tucker that the body is but the garment of the soul, with which it really has little more necessary connection than with the house we may dwell in, the clothes we may wear, the tools we may use. He who gave us this body is able to give us another, and we should be willing to leave ourselves in his hands.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

BANKRUPT LAW.

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A UNIFORM SYSTEM OF BANKRUPTCY THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES.

Bankruptcy authorized—Exceptions—Initiatory proceedings on application for—Cases in which creditors may demand bankruptcy—Jury trial granted thereon.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there be, and hereby is, established throughout the United States, a uniform system of bankruptcy, as follows: All persons whatsoever, residing in any State, District or Territory of the United States, owing debts, which shall not have been created in consequence of a defalcation as a public officer; or as executor, administrator, guardian or trustee, or while acting in any other fiduciary capacity, who shall, by petition, setting forth to the best of his knowledge and belief, a list of his or their creditors, their respective places of residence, and the amount due to each, together with an accurate inventory of his or their property, rights, and credits, of every name, kind, and description, and the location and situation of each and every parcel and portion thereof, verified by oath, or, if conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, by solemn affirmation, apply to the proper court, as hereinafter mentioned, for the benefit of this act, and therein declare themselves to be unable to meet their debts and engagements, shall be deemed bankrupts within the purview of this act, and may be so declared accordingly by a decree of such court. All persons, being merchants, or using the trade of merchandise, all retailers of merchandise, and all bankers, factors, brokers, underwriters, or marine insurers, owing debts to the amount of not less than two thousand dollars, shall be liable to become bankrupts within the true intent and meaning of this act, and may, upon the petition of one or more of their creditors, to whom they owe debts amounting in the whole to not less than five hundred dollars, to the appropriate court, be so declared accordingly, in the following cases, to wit: whenever such person, being a merchant, or actually using the trade of merchandise, or being a retailer of merchandise, or being a banker, factor, broker, underwriter, or marine insurer, shall depart from the State, District, or Territory, of which he is an inhabitant, with intent to defraud his creditors; or shall conceal himself to avoid being arrested, or shall willingly or fraudulently procure himself to be arrested, or his goods and chattels, lands, or tenements, to be attached, distrained, sequester-

ed, or taken in execution ; or shall remove his goods, chattels, and effects, or conceal them to prevent their being levied upon, or taken in execution, or by other process ; or make any fraudulent conveyance, assignment, sale, gift, or other transfer of his lands, tenements, goods, or chattels, credits, or evidences of debt : *Provided, however,* That any person so declared a bankrupt, at the instance of a creditor, may, at his election, by petition to such court within ten days after its decree, be entitled to a trial by jury before such court, to ascertain the fact of such bankruptcy ; or if such person shall reside at a great distance from the place of holding such court, the said judge, in his discretion, may direct such trial by jury to be had in the county of such person's residence, in such manner, and under such directions, as the said court may prescribe and give : and all such decrees passed by such court, and not so re-examined, shall be deemed final and conclusive as to the subject-matter thereof.

Future preferences void—Discharge in such case forbid—Limit and proviso—Cases of preferences since 1st January last, provided for—Married women and minors' rights preserved.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That all future payments, securities, conveyances, or transfers of property, or agreements made or given by any bankrupt, in contemplation of bankruptcy, and for the purpose of giving any creditor, endorser, surety, or other person, any preference or priority over the general creditors of such bankrupts ; and all other payments, securities, conveyances, or transfers of property, or agreements made or given by such bankrupt in contemplation of bankruptcy, to any person or persons whatever, not being a bona fide creditor or purchaser, for a valuable consideration, without notice, shall be deemed utterly void, and a fraud upon this act ; and the assignee under the bankruptcy shall be entitled to claim, sue for, recover, and receive the same as part of the assets of the bankruptcy ; and the person making such unlawful preferences and payments shall receive no discharge under the provisions of this act : *Provided,* That all dealings and transactions by and with any bankrupt, bona fide made and entered into more than two months before the petition filed against him, or by him, shall not be invalidated or affected by this act : *Provided,* That the other party to any such dealings or transactions had no notice of a prior act of bankruptcy, or of the intention of the bankrupt to take the benefit of this act. And in case it shall be made to appear to the court, in the course of the proceedings in bankruptcy, that the bankrupt, his application being voluntary, has, subsequent to the first day of January last, or at any other time, in contemplation of the passage of a bankrupt law, by assignments or otherwise, given or secured any preference to one creditor over another, he shall not receive a discharge unless the same be assented to by a majority in interest of those of his creditors who have not been so preferred : *And provided, also,* That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to annul, destroy, or impair any lawful rights of married women, or minors, or any liens, mortgages, or other securities on property, real or personal, which may be valid by the laws of the States respectively, and which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the second and fifth sections of this act.

Decree of bankruptcy divests the bankrupt and invests his assignee with his whole property—Certain articles excepted.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That all the property, and rights of property, of every name and nature, and whether real, personal, or mixed, of every bankrupt, except as is hereinafter provided, who shall, by a decree of the proper court, be declared to be a bankrupt within this act, shall by mere operation of law, ipso facto, from the time of such decree, be deemed to be divested out of such bankrupt, without any other act, assignment, or other conveyance whatsoever ; and the same shall be vested, by force of the same decree, in such assignee as from time to time shall be appointed by the proper

court for this purpose; which power of appointment and removal such court may exercise at its discretion, to the same effect; and the assignee so appointed shall be vested with all the rights, titles, powers, and authorities, to sell, manage, and dispose of the same, and to sue for and defend the same, subject to the orders and directions of such court, as fully, to all intents and purposes, as if the same were vested in, or might be exercised by, such bankrupt before or at the time of his bankruptcy declared as aforesaid; and all suits in law or in equity, then pending, in which such bankrupt is a party, may be prosecuted and defended by such assignee to its final conclusion, in the same way, and with the same effect, as they might have been by such bankrupt; and no suit commenced by or against any assignee shall be abated by his death or removal from office, but the same may be prosecuted or defended by his successor in the same office: *Provided, however,* That there shall be excepted from the operation of the provisions of this section the necessary household and kitchen furniture, and such other articles and necessities of such bankrupt as the said assignee shall designate and set apart, having reference in the amount to the family, condition, and circumstances of the bankrupt, but altogether not to exceed in value, in any case, the sum of three hundred dollars; and, also, the wearing apparel of such bankrupt, and that of his wife and children; and the determination of the assignee in the matter shall, on exception taken, be subject to the final decision of said court.

Discharge may be granted by court, except creditors dissent—Final notice to creditors required—Right to discharge forfeited by fraud, &c.—Limitation of discharge—Case of perjury—Effect of discharge—In case creditors dissent, or court refuse to discharge—Jury trial granted, or appeal to circuit court.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That every bankrupt, who shall bona fide surrender all his property, and rights of property, with the exception before mentioned, for the benefit of his creditors, and shall fully comply with and obey all the orders and directions which may from time to time be passed by the proper court, and shall otherwise conform to all the other requisitions of this act, shall (unless a majority in number and value of his creditors, who have proved their debts, shall file their written dissent thereto) be entitled to a full discharge from all his debts, to be decreed and allowed by the court which has declared him a bankrupt, and a certificate thereof granted to him by such court accordingly, upon his petition filed for such purpose; such discharge and certificate not, however, to be granted until after ninety days from the decree of bankruptcy, nor until after seventy days' notice in some public newspaper, designated by such court, to all creditors who have proved their debts, and other persons in interest, to appear at a particular time and place, to show cause why such discharge and certificate shall not be granted; at which time and place any such creditors, or other persons in interest, may appear and contest the right of the bankrupt thereto: *Provided,* That in all cases where the residence of the creditor is known, a service on him personally, or by letter addressed to him at his known usual place of residence, shall be prescribed by the court as in their discretion shall seem proper, having regard to the distance at which the creditor resides from such court. And if any such bankrupt shall be guilty of any fraud or wilful concealment of his property or rights of property, or shall have preferred any of his creditors contrary to the provisions of this act, or shall wilfully omit or refuse to comply with any orders or directions of such court, or to conform to any other requisites of this act, or shall, in the proceedings under this act, admit a false or fictitious debt against his estate, he shall not be entitled to any such discharge or certificate; nor shall any person, being a merchant, banker, factor, broker, underwriter, or marine insurer, be entitled to any such discharge or certificate, who shall become bankrupt, and who shall not have kept proper books of account, after the passing of this act; nor any person who, after the passing of this act, shall apply trust funds to his own use: *Provided,* That no discharge of any bankrupt under this act shall release or discharge any person who may be liable for

the same debt as a partner, joint contractor, endorser, surety, or otherwise, for or with the bankrupt. And such bankrupt shall at all times be subject to examination, orally, or upon written interrogatories, in and before such court, or any commission appointed by the court therefor, on oath, or, if conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, upon his solemn affirmation, in all matters relating to such bankruptcy, and his acts and doings, and his property and rights of property, which, in the judgment of such court, are necessary and proper for the purposes of justice; and if in any such examination, he shall wilfully and corruptly answer, or swear, or affirm, falsely, he shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be punishable therefor, in like manner as the crime of perjury is now punishable by the laws of the United States; and such discharge and certificate, when duly granted, shall, in all courts of justice, be deemed a full and complete discharge of all debts, contracts, and other engagements of such bankrupt, which are proveable under this act, and shall be and may be pleaded as a full and complete bar to all suits brought in any court of judicature whatever, and the same shall be conclusive evidence of itself in favor of such bankrupt, unless the same shall be impeached for some fraud or wilful concealment by him, of his property, or rights of property, as aforesaid, contrary to the provisions of this act, on prior reasonable notice specifying in writing such fraud or concealment; and if, in any case of bankruptcy, a majority, in number and value, of the creditors, who shall have proved their debts at the time of hearing of the petition of the bankrupt for a discharge as hereinbefore provided, shall at such hearing file their written dissent to the allowance of a discharge and certificate to such bankrupt, or if, upon such hearing, a discharge shall not be decreed to him, the bankrupt may demand a trial by jury upon a proper issue to be directed by the court, at such time and place, and in such manner, as the court may order; or he may appeal from that decision, at any time within ten days thereafter, to the circuit court next to be held for the same district, by simply entering in the district court, or with the clerk thereof, upon record, his prayer for an appeal. The appeal shall be tried at the first term of the circuit court after it be taken, unless, for sufficient reason, a continuance be granted; and it may be heard and determined by said court summarily, or by a jury, at the option of the bankrupt; and the creditors may appear and object against a decree of discharge and the allowance of the certificate, as hereinbefore provided. And if, upon a full hearing of the parties, it shall appear to the satisfaction of the court, or the jury shall find that the bankrupt has made a full disclosure and surrender of all his estate, as by this act required, and has in all things conformed to the directions thereof, the court shall make a decree of discharge, and grant a certificate, as provided in this act.

Bankrupt's property—Distribution directed—Contingent debts provided for—Right of action waived—Case of mutual debt—Power to disallow claims—Proof of debt to corporations—Appointment of commissioners.

Sec. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That all creditors coming in and proving their debts under such bankruptcy, in the manner hereinafter prescribed, the same being bona fide debts, shall be entitled to share in the bankrupt's property and effects, pro rata, without any priority or preference whatsoever, except only for debts due by such bankrupt to the United States, and for all debts due by him to persons who, by the laws of the United States, have a preference, in consequence of having paid moneys as his sureties, which shall be first paid out of the assets; and any person who shall have performed any labor as an operative in the service of any bankrupt shall be entitled to receive the full amount of the wages due to him for such labor, not exceeding twenty-five dollars: *Provided,* That such labor shall have been performed within six months next before the bankruptcy of his employer; and all creditors whose debts are not due and payable until a future day, all annuitants, holders of bottomry and respondentia bonds, holders of policies of insurances, sureties, endorsers, bail, or other persons, having uncertain or contingent demands against such bank-

rupt, shall be permitted to come in and prove such debts or claims under this act, and shall have a right, when their debts and claims become absolute, to have the same allowed them; and such annuitants and holders of debts payable in future may have the present value thereof ascertained, under the direction of such court, and allowed them accordingly, as debts in presenti; and no creditor or other person, coming in and proving his debt or other claim, shall be allowed to maintain any suit at law or in equity therefor, but shall be deemed thereby to have waived all right of action and suit against such bankrupt; and all proceedings already commenced, and all unsatisfied judgments already obtained thereon, shall be deemed to be surrendered thereby; and in all cases where there are mutual debts or mutual credits between the parties, the balance only shall be deemed the true debt or claim between them, and the residue shall be deemed adjusted by the set-off; all such proof of debts shall be made before the court decreeing the bankruptcy, or before some commissioner appointed by the court for that purpose; but such court shall have full power to set aside and disallow any debt, upon proof that such debt is founded in fraud, imposition, illegality, or mistake; and corporations to whom any debts are due, may make proof thereof by their president, cashier, treasurer, or other officer, who may be specially appointed for that purpose; and in appointing commissioners to receive proof of debts, and perform other duties, under the provisions of this act, the said court shall appoint such persons as have their residence in the county in which the bankrupt lives.

Jurisdiction of the United States district court over all cases of bankruptcy—Rules of proceeding—Fees.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That the district court in every district shall have jurisdiction in all matters and proceedings in bankruptcy arising under this act, and any other act which may hereafter be passed on the subject of bankruptcy; the said jurisdiction to be exercised summarily, in the nature of summary proceedings in equity; and for this purpose the said district court shall be deemed always open. And the district judge may adjourn any point or question arising in any case in bankruptcy into the circuit court for the district, in his discretion, to be there heard and determined; and for this purpose the circuit court of such district shall also be deemed always open. And the jurisdiction hereby conferred on the district court shall extend to all cases and controversies in bankruptcy arising between the bankrupt and any creditor or creditors who shall claim any debt or demand under the bankruptcy; to all cases and controversies between such creditor or creditors and the assignee of the estate, whether in office or removed; to all cases and controversies between such assignee and the bankrupt, and to all acts, matters, and things to be done under and in virtue of the bankruptcy, until the final distribution and settlement of the estate of the bankrupt, and the close of the proceedings in bankruptcy. And the said courts shall have full authority and jurisdiction to compel obedience to all orders and decrees passed by them in bankruptcy, by process of contempt and other remedial process, to the same extent the circuit courts may now do in any suit pending therein in equity. And it shall be the duty of the district court in each district, from time to time, to prescribe suitable rules and regulations, and forms of proceedings, in all matters of bankruptcy; which rules, regulations, and forms, shall be subject to be altered, added to, revised, or annulled, by the circuit court of the same district, and other rules and regulations, and forms substituted therefor; and, in all such rules, regulations, and forms, it shall be the duty of the said courts to make them as simple and brief as practicable, to the end to avoid all unnecessary expenses, and to facilitate the use thereof by the public at large. And the said courts shall, from time to time, prescribe a tariff or table of fees and charges to be taxed by the officers of the court or other persons, for services under this act, or any other on the subject of bankruptcy; which fees shall be as low as practicable, with reference to the nature and character of such services

Proceedings must be in the district where the bankrupt resides—Notice to creditors to show cause—Evidence under oath—Proof of debt—Trial awarded in case of dispute—Case of perjury punishable.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That all petitions by any bankrupt for the benefit of this act, and all petitions by a creditor against any bankrupt under this act, and all proceedings in the case to the close thereof, shall be had in the district court within and for the district in which the person supposed to be a bankrupt shall reside, or have his place of business at the time when such petition is filed, except where otherwise provided in this act. And upon every such petition, notice thereof shall be published in one or more public newspapers printed in such district, to be designated by such court at least twenty days before the hearing thereof; and all persons interested may appear at the time and place where the hearing is thus to be had, and show cause, if any they have, why the prayer of the said petitioner should not be granted; all evidence by witnesses to be used in all hearings before such court shall be under oath or solemn affirmation, when the party is conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, and may be oral or by deposition, taken before such court, or before any commissioner appointed by such court, or before any disinterested State judge of the State in which the deposition is taken; and all proof of debts or other claims, by creditors entitled to prove the same by this act, shall be under oath or solemn affirmation as aforesaid, before such court or commissioner appointed thereby, or before some disinterested State judge of the State where the creditors live, in such form as may be prescribed by the rules and regulations hereinbefore authorized to be made and established by the courts having jurisdiction in bankruptcy. But all such proofs of debts and other claims shall be open to contestation in the proper court having jurisdiction over the proceedings in the particular case in bankruptcy; and as well the assignee as the creditor shall have a right to a trial by jury, upon an issue to be directed by such court, to ascertain the validity and amount of such debts or other claims; and the result therein, unless a new trial shall be granted, if in favor of the claims, shall be evidence of the validity and amount of such debts or other claims. And if any person or persons shall falsely and corruptly answer, swear, or affirm, in any hearing or on trial of any matter, or in any proceeding in such court in bankruptcy, or before any commissioner, he and they shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and punishable therefor in the manner and to the extent provided by law for other cases.

Jurisdiction of the circuit court in cases against the assignee of a bankrupt—Limitation against such suit.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted,* That the circuit court within and for the district where the decree of bankruptcy is passed, shall have concurrent jurisdiction with the district court of the same district of all suits at law and in equity which may and shall be brought by any assignee of the bankrupt against any person or persons claiming an adverse interest, or by such person against such assignee, touching any property or rights of property of said bankrupt transferable to, or vested in, such assignee; and no suit at law or in equity shall, in any case, be maintainable by or against such assignee, or by or against any person claiming an adverse interest touching the property and rights of property aforesaid, in any court whatsoever, unless the same shall be brought within two years after the declaration and decree of bankruptcy, or after the cause of suit shall first have accrued.

Sales of property—Disposition of proceeds—Bonds required of assignee.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted,* That all sales, transfers, and other conveyances, of the assignee of the bankrupt's property and rights of property, shall be made at such times and in such manner as shall be ordered and appointed by the court in bankruptcy; and all assets received by the assignee in money shall, within sixty days afterward, be paid into the court, subject to its order respecting its future safe-keeping and disposition; and the court may require of such assignee a bond, with at least two sureties, in such sum as it may deem

proper, conditioned for the due and faithful discharge of all his duties, and his compliance with the orders and directions of the court; which bond shall be taken in the name of the United States, and shall, if there be any breach thereof, be sued and sueable, under the order of such court, for the benefit of the creditors and other persons in interest.

Prompt proceedings directed—Dividends of assets at least every six months—Notice thereof required—Suits at law not to postpone dividends—Proceedings to be closed in two years—Claims not proved in time.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That in order to ensure a speedy settlement and close of the proceedings in each case in bankruptcy, it shall be the duty of the court to order and direct a collection of the assets, and a reduction of the same to money, and a distribution thereof at as early periods as practicable, consistently with a due regard to the interests of the creditors: and a dividend and distribution of such assets as shall be collected and reduced to money, or so much thereof as can be safely so disposed of, consistently with the rights and interests of third persons having adverse claims thereto, shall be made among the creditors who have proved their debts, as often as once in six months from the time of the decree declaring the bankruptcy; notice of such dividends and distribution to be given in some newspaper or newspapers in the District, designated by the court, ten days at least before the order therefor is passed; and the pendency of any suit at law or in equity, by or against such third persons, shall not postpone such division and distribution, except so far as the assets may be necessary to satisfy the same; and all the proceedings in bankruptcy in each case shall, if practicable, be finally adjusted, settled, and brought to a close, by the court, within two years after the decree declaring the bankruptcy. And where any creditor shall not have proved his debt until a dividend or distribution shall have been made and declared, he shall be entitled to be paid the same amount, pro rata, out of the remaining dividends or distributions thereafter made, as the other creditors have already received; before the latter shall be entitled to any portion thereof.

Assignee may, by order of court, redeem mortgaged or hypothecated property Compound doubtful claims, &c.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the assignee shall have full authority, by and under the order and direction of the proper court in bankruptcy, to redeem and discharge any mortgage or other pledge, or deposit, or lien upon any property, real or personal, whether payable in present or at a future day, and to tender a due performance of the conditions thereof. And such assignee shall also have authority, by and under the order and direction of the proper court in bankruptcy, to compound any debts, or other claims, or securities due or belonging to the estate of the bankrupt; but no such order or direction shall be made until notice of the application is given in some public newspaper in the district, to be designated by the court, ten days at least before the hearing, so that all creditors and other persons in interest may appear and show cause, if any they have, at the hearing, why the order or direction should not be passed.

A person once discharged, excepted from the benefit of another discharge—Unless, &c.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person, who shall have been discharged under this act, shall afterward become bankrupt, he shall not again be entitled to a discharge under this act, unless his estate shall produce (after all charges) sufficient to pay every creditor seventy-five per cent. on the amount of the debt which shall have been allowed to each creditor.

Proceedings to be recorded—Office copy—Fees.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the proceedings in all cases in bankruptcy shall be deemed matters of record; but the same shall not be required to be recorded at large, but shall be carefully filed, kept, and numbered, in the office of the court, and a docket only, or short memorandum thereof, with the numbers, kept, in a book by the clerk of the court; and the clerk of the court, for affixing his name and the seal of the court to any form, or certifying a copy thereof, when required thereto, shall be entitled to receive, as compensation,

the sum of twenty-five cents and no more. And no officer of the court, or commissioner, shall be allowed by the court more than one dollar for taking the proof of any debt or other claim of any creditor or other person against the estate of the bankrupt; but he may be allowed, in addition, his actual travel expenses for that purpose.

Regulations in relation to partnerships.

Sec. 14. *And be it further enacted,* That where two or more persons, who are partners in trade, become insolvent, an order may be made in the manner provided in this act, either on the petition of such partners, or any one of them, or on the petition of any creditor of the partners; upon which order all the joint stock and property of the company, and also all the separate estate of each of the partners, shall be taken, excepting such parts thereof as are herein excepted; and all the creditors of the company, and the separate creditors of each partner, shall be allowed to prove their respective debts; and the assignees shall also keep separate accounts of the joint stock or property of the company, and of the separate estate of each member thereof; and after deducting out of the whole amount received by such assignees, the whole of the expenses and disbursements paid by them, the nett proceeds of the joint stock shall be appropriated to pay the creditors of the company, and the nett proceeds of the separate estate of each partner shall be appropriated to pay his separate creditors: and if there shall be any balance of the separate estate of any partner, after the payment of his separate debts, such balance shall be added to the joint stock, for the payment of the joint creditors; and if there shall be any balance of the joint stock, after payment of the joint debts, such balance shall be divided and appropriated to and among the separate estates of the several partners, according to their respective rights and interests therein, and as it would have been if the partnership had been dissolved without any bankruptcy; and the sum so appropriated to the separate estate of each partner shall be applied to the payment of his separate debts; and the certificate of discharge shall be granted or refused to each partner, as the same would or ought to be if the proceedings had been against him alone under this act; and in all other respects the proceedings against partners shall be conducted in the like manner as if they had been commenced and prosecuted against one person alone.

Decree of bankruptcy and copy of order of appointments of assignees to be recited in all deeds for land sold by assignees—Such deeds confirmed.

Sec. 15. *And be it further enacted,* That a copy of any decree of bankruptcy, and the appointment of assignees, as directed by the third section of this act, shall be recited in every deed of lands belonging to the bankrupt, sold and conveyed by any assignees under and by virtue of this act; and that such recital together with a certified copy of such order shall be full and complete evidence both of the bankruptcy and assignment therein recited, and supersede the necessity of any other proof of such bankruptcy and assignment to validate the said deed; and all deeds containing such recital, and supported by such proof, shall be as effectual to pass the title of the bankrupt, of, in, and to the lands therein mentioned and described to the purchaser, as fully, to all intents and purposes, as if made by such bankrupt himself, immediately before such order.

District of Columbia and territory cases.

Sec. 16. *And be it further enacted,* That all jurisdiction, power, and authority, conferred upon and vested in the district court of the United States by this act, in cases in bankruptcy, are hereby conferred upon and vested in the circuit court of the United States for the District of Columbia, and in and upon the supreme or superior courts of any of the Territories of the United States, in cases in bankruptcy, where the bankrupt resides in the said District of Columbia, or in either of the said Territories.

This act to take effect 1st February, 1842.

Sec. 17. *And be it further enacted,* That this act shall take effect from and after the first day of February next.

Approved. August 19th, 1841.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*America; Historical, Statistical, and Descriptive.* By J. S. BUCKINGHAM, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 514, 516. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1841.

The opinion pretty generally expressed by the public and the press in relation to these Travels, is, we think, correct—that, setting aside the author's egotism, prolixity, and occasional mistakes, he has made a very readable book, containing much interesting and useful matter, collected from a great variety of sources, and evincing, so far as English prejudice will allow, an honest desire to be just and impartial. The fact that all foreigners look upon us, our country, and our institutions, through the medium of principles and opinions formed under a system of things but little in harmony with our own, should moderate our indignation and surprise at the seeming unfairness of many of their representations, while this very circumstance may enable them to see our real defects in a truer light than they can appear to ourselves. This remark we would apply to Mr. Buckingham's book, in which, if there be some things which startle us by their erroneousness or absurdity, there are others which we may turn to no small advantage, in discovering and correcting actual faults of character. Besides an excellent portrait, the work is embellished with a number of engravings.

- 2.—*Facts in Mesmerism, with Reasons for a dispassionate Inquiry into it.* By the Rev. CHAUNCY HARR TOWNSEND, A. M., late of Trinity Hall, Cambridge. 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 388. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1841.

This is a startling book, and whether the reader be a believer in animal magnetism or not, he will find in it much to excite his wonder, and puzzle his reason. As for ourselves, we have never had much faith in the marvellous stories told in relation to this subject, being inclined rather to look upon it as a mixture of jugglery and delusion; but we must confess that the Rev. author relates things hard to be accounted for or understood. There is a great appearance of fairness throughout the work, and the character of the author would seem to forbid our discrediting his facts. Our readers must buy the book and judge for themselves. It contains, as Bulwer observes, "experiments as marvellous as any of the theories of the astrologer."

- 3.—*The Dahlia, or Memorial of Affection, for 1842.* Edited by a LADY. 18mo. pp. 180. New York: James P. Giffing. 1841.

This is really one of the prettiest annuals designed for the approaching Christmas and New Year gifts we have seen. The engravings are well done, and good taste and judgment are evinced in the selection of the subjects. The tales, sketches, and poems, are from well known and favorite authors, both in this country and England, pure in sentiment, and chaste and beautiful in style. Though designed for young persons, it contains much that will gratify and improve the more matured mind of the adult.

- 4.—*The Peasant and the Prince.* By HARRIET MARTINEAU. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 174. 1841.

- 5.—*The Poplar Grove; or Little Harry and his Uncle Benjamin: a tale for youth.* By ESTHER COPLEY, author of "Early Friendships," &c. D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 178. 1841.

These excellent books are the last published of Appleton's series of "Tales for the People and their children." The intellectual character of the series, thus far, is much above the ordinary standard, and their moral tendency unexceptionable.

- 6.—*The Siege of Derry, or Sufferings of the Protestants: a tale of the Revolution.* By CHARLOTTE ELIZABETH. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 12mo. pp. 292. 1841.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RUSSIAN MONEYS—WEIGHTS—MEASURES—EXCHANGE—BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

In Russia, an imperial manifest, dated 1st of July, 1839, re-established the silver standard of currency in that country as the lawful medium for the valuation of property, fixing the 1st of January, 1840, as the time from which the new system should be fully and generally adopted throughout the empire, in lieu of the old bank note or paper roubles; the latter were, by the same decree, to remain in circulation as a mere auxiliary medium of payment, at an invariable rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ roubles bank notes for 1 rouble silver. The amount of these old bank notes not having in latter times been increased, and proving rather insufficient for supplying the wants of the country of a convenient paper medium of circulation, new additional bank notes representing silver, (probably intended to supersede the old ones by degrees,) were created by establishing a silver-deposit office at the Commercial Bank of St. Petersburg, under the superintendence and management of a mixed board of directors, composed of government bank officers and respectable first-class merchants, which is empowered to receive voluntary deposits of specie, and to issue in lieu thereof silver-deposit-cash-notes, payable to bearer on demand, the deposits received having to be held by the board untouched, at the constant disposal of the notes so issued. This deposit-cash began its operations in January, 1840, and has since been very busy receiving deposits as well as exchanging notes for specie. These important decrees, by which the Russian monetary and bank note system has probably been raised to an insuperable degree of perfection, having produced an entire change in commerce, relative to matters of account, and the future calculation of goods by the silver standard, at courses of exchange in foreign money, now quoted for the silver rouble, have—along with the conversion of all duties, rates, and expenses of merchandise into silver—given rise to the publication in London, of the “Russia Trader’s Assistant,” from which we derive for publication in our magazine the following practical information, concerning *Russian moneys, weights and measures, the course of exchange, bills of exchange, &c.* The most implicit confidence may be placed in the information, as the work comes out under the sanction of the British Factory at St. Petersburg, and is approved by the leading merchants of that city.

RUSSIAN MONEYS.

1. The Silver Standard—2. Silver Coins—3. Gold Coins—4. Copper Coins—5. Old Bank Notes—6. New Bank Notes—7. Platina Coins—8. Fixed Value of Foreign Gold Coins in Circulation—9. Fixed Value of Foreign Silver Coins in Circulation.

1. The imperial manifest of 1st July, 1839, enacts:—That all property shall be valued, the prices of merchandise shall be fixed, and books and accounts shall be kept in the coined SILVER ROUBLE of 100 COPECKS, as the standard of lawful money.

2. The coined silver rouble contains 4 zolotniks 21 parts Russian weight of pure silver, with $61\frac{1}{4}$ parts alloy. The other silver coins by the same standard are pieces of 150, 75, 50, 30, 25, 20, 15, 10, and 5 copecks each. Besides this, the following lawful moneys circulate as legal tenders of payment, viz:—

3. The coined gold rouble, containing 27 parts pure gold, in coined pieces of 10, 5, 3, and 1 rouble each; and 100 roubles of gold are enacted to be equal to 103 roubles of silver.

4. The coined copper money in pieces of 10, 5, 2, 1, and $\frac{1}{2}$ copecks each, of which 350 copecks are enacted to be reckoned equal to one silver rouble.

5. The old bank notes or paper roubles, called “Imperial Bank Assignments,” representing the copper coin, in notes of 200, 100, 50, 25, 10, and 5 roubles each; and $3\frac{1}{2}$ such roubles are enacted to be invariably equal to one silver rouble.

6. The new bank notes, representing silver roubles, to be from the 1st January, 1892, issued by a special deposit bank against cash paid in as deposit, payable to bearer on demand without interest; and the deposits made are to be kept untouched, at the constant disposal of the notes issued.

7. The coined platina money in pieces of 12, 6, and 3 roubles each, equivalent to the same number of silver roubles. A platina piece of 3 roubles contains 2 solotniks 41 parts of pure platina metal.

8. The following foreign gold coins may be taken in payment at the undermentioned prices, fixed by government, viz:—

Standard Weight.

		s. p.	s. p.	Silver.
French	40 francs pieces.....	3 2 not less than	3 1 assay $\frac{3}{4}$ fine at 9 Ro.	84 Co
"	20 "	1 49	1 48	do. 4 " 92 "
Sardinian	20 liras pieces	1 49	1 48	do. 4 " 92 "
Prussian	10 dollars pieces.....	3 12	3 11	do. 10 " 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
"	5 " "	1 54	1 53	do. 5 " 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Hanoverian	10 " "	3 10	3 9	do. 10 " 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
"	5 " "	1 53	1 52	do. 5 " 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Saxon	10 " "	3 10	3 9	do. 10 " 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
"	5 " "	1 53	1 52	do. 5 " 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Spanish doubloons.....	6 32	6 31	$\frac{1}{2}$ fine	19 " 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Austrian sovereigns d'or.....	2 58	2 57	$\frac{1}{2}$ fine	8 " 69 $\frac{1}{2}$ "

9. The following foreign silver coins may likewise be taken in payment at the undermentioned rates, fixed by government, viz:—

	s. p.	Silver.
Dutch dollars.....	standard weight, 6 54 assay $\frac{3}{4}$ fine at 1 Ro.	33 $\frac{1}{2}$ Co.
French 5 francs pieces.....	5 81 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 " 24 "
Prussian dollars.....	5 21 $\frac{7}{8}$	— " 91 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Saxon and Bavarian dollars.....	6 53 $\frac{7}{8}$	1 " 27 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Swedish specie dollars.....	6 82 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 " 41 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Danish specie dollars.....	6 72 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 " 38 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Brabant dollars.....	6 83 $\frac{7}{8}$	1 " 39 "
Austrian dollars.....	6 55 $\frac{7}{8}$	1 " 28 $\frac{1}{2}$ "
Spanish piastres.....	6 29 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 " 33 "
Pieces of 20 Creutzers.....	1 48 $\frac{1}{2}$	— " 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ "

N. B.—An assay of $\frac{3}{4}$ means: that in 96 solotniks, or 1 pound of bullion, there is 86 sol. of pure gold or silver; the rest being base metal or alloy of no value.

RUSSIAN WEIGHTS.

10. The Standard of Weight compared with British Weights.

10. The standard of weight is the Russian pound of 32 lotha, or 96 solotniks (gold grains;) a solotnik being subdivided into 96 parts. 1000 Russian pounds are equal to 1095,9 pounds British imperial troy, and 903 pounds imperial avoirdupois weight. Merchandise is also sold by the berkowetz of 400 lb., equal to 361,2 lb. imperial a. d. p.; or by the pood of 40 lb., equal to 36,12 lb. imperial a. d. p.; 10 poods making 1 berkowetz. Accordingly,

1 ton	of 2240 lb. imperial a. d. p. should weigh	62 poods	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Russian.
1 cwt.	of 112	3	4 "
1 quar.	of 28	—	31 "

And this is the proportion assumed by the customhouses in Russia, for declaring the equivalency of British weight in bills of entry of goods imported.

RUSSIAN MEASURES.

11. The Standard of Long Measure compared with British, and the Deal Measure—12. The Standard of Liquid Measure, compared with British—13. The Standard of Dry or Corn Measure, compared with British.

11. The standard of long measure is the arshine of 16 vershoks; 3 arshines making 1 fathom or sazhen. 1000 Russian arshines are equal to 778 British yards, or 1000 yards equal to 1286 arshines, which is the proportion assumed by the Russian customhouses. Deals and battens are measured by the British foot; 72 feet running measure of deal, 3 inches thick, and 11 inches wide, making one standard dozen, and 10 dozens 1 standard hundred.

12. The standard of liquid measure is the Russian vedro of 4 chetverika, at 8 krushkas each; a botchka or cask contains $13\frac{1}{2}$ ankera, or 40 vedros, or 160 chetverika, or 320 krushkas. 1000 Russian vedros are equal to 2710 imperial gallons, or 1000 imperial gallons to 369 vedros, which is the proportion assumed at the customhouses.

13. The standard of dry or corn measure is the chetverik; 8 chetveriks making 1 chetvert, by which grain is sold. 1000 chetveriks being of the same solid contents as 720 bushels, 1000 chetverts should measure out 720 imperial quarters, which is the proportion assumed at the customhouses; but linseed and wheat are seldom found to yield more than 700, at the most 710 quarters from the ship's side; while oats generally render 710 quarters, or thereabouts.

EXCHANGE.

14. Foundation of the Current Exchange—15. Foundation of the intrinsic par—16. Shows how the intrinsic par is to be found—17. Value of Russian Coin sent to London—18. Value of British Gold sent to St. Petersburg—19. Value of British Silver in Russia—20. Calculation of Silver in Bars, imported from Hamburg into St. Petersburg—21. Account of Nett Proceeds of Hamburg Silver, realized at St. Petersburg—22. Influence of the Balance of Trade on the Exchange, with quotations—23. Table of the Value of £1 to £100,000 in Russian Silver, and of S. R. 1 to 100,000 in British Pence, at progressive Courses of Exchange—24. Use of the Table in Calculations—25. Table of Equivalents of the Old Bank Notes and New Silver Prices.

14. The course of exchange in Russia, for bills drawn there against ready cash, payable in London at three months after date, is, by private contract between the drawers and remitters, fixed and quoted at so many pence sterling, (gold,) for one rouble silver; and founded on the par of exchange between both countries. It fluctuates periodically above or under that par, according to the circumstances, that alternately influence the bill market; the demand for bills preponderating at one, and the demand for money at another time, thus producing a *current* exchange, or market price of the silver rouble in British sterling pence, on which the cost of goods bought in Russia, and the nett proceeds of goods sold there, are dependant.

15. In order to ascertain whether the *current* exchange be advantageous or disadvantageous to the British merchant, in either of the above-mentioned cases, it is in the first place necessary to know the intrinsic par, or metallic equivalency of the standard currencies of both countries; and then to take into account the loss or saving of time, occasioned by the usance; together with the saving of risk and expenses that would be incurred by the transmission of bullion, or of sums of coined money of the one country, for converting it into the coined lawful money of the other, where the payment has to be made.

16. The standard of currency in Great Britain being the pound sterling of gold, coined as a sovereign; and that in Russia, the coined rouble of silver; the intrinsic par between both is found by the following proportions, viz:—a troy pound of mint gold, containing $46\frac{1}{2}$ sovereigns of $\frac{1}{12}$ fine gold, is equal to 80 zol. 98 parts, Russian weight of contents of fine gold; 27 zol. fine, give one rouble gold in Russia and 100 roubles gold are there, by law, equal to 1000 roubles silver; the problem of calculation accordingly stands thus:—

			1	rouble silver, how many pence ?
103	roubles silver	:	100	roubles gold.
1	rouble gold	:	27	parts fine gold.
7708½	parts fine gold	:	46½	sovereigns.
1	sovereign	:	240	pence sterling.

=Intrinsic par $38\frac{2}{4}$ pence.

17. If silver roubles in Russia were exchanged there for gold, and the gold were sent over to London for conversion into British sovereigns, for payment to the British merchant, this operation would involve the loss of at least *one* month's interest, with the expenses of commission, premium of insurance, freight, charges, and allowance for coinage: assuming these charges to amount together to 2 per cent or $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per rouble; and deducting so much from the intrinsic value, found to be $38\frac{2}{4}$ d. in gold, the remaining nett proceeds of a silver rouble would only be 37½d., as available payment in London, *one* month after date of its investment in gold at St. Petersburg; and 37½d. would thus appear to be an equivalent exchange, if, instead of the investment in foreign gold to be sent over, the silver rouble were laid out at St. Petersburg in a remittance per draft on London, payable there at one month's date. But, as it is customary at St. Petersburg to make such remittances in bills payable at *three* months' date, the calculation of an equivalent exchange for such usance requires an addition of interest for the extra two months of later payment by bill, which, at the rate of 5 per cent per annum, makes $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, or $\frac{1}{3}$ d. per rouble, and establishes the equivalent of a silver rouble to be 37 $\frac{1}{3}$ d. in bills, payable in London at three months' date, as the standard par of exchange at St. Petersburg.

18. If, on the other hand, British gold were sent over from London to St. Petersburg, to be there converted into Russian gold coins, and these gold coins exchanged for or valued by silver roubles, in payment to the Russian merchant, for produce shipped by him, the operation would involve the loss of *one* month's interest with charges as above, assumed at 2½ or $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per rouble in addition to its intrinsic equivalency of $38\frac{2}{4}$ d. of gold, requiring thus $38\frac{3}{4}$ d. to be sent over to cover the payment of one silver rouble at St. Petersburg; instead of its being drawn for there, against ready cash, payable in London 3 months after date; and this benefit of usance being additionally forgone by sending gold, its equivalent in interest, being 1½ per cent or $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per rouble, has further to be added in calculation, to the cost already found at $38\frac{3}{4}$ d.; bringing the equivalent of the silver rouble to $39\frac{1}{4}$ d. per bills, payable in London three months after date, as the standard par of exchange at St. Petersburg. From this it further follows, that it is not profitable to import British gold at St. Petersburg, unless the current exchange there rule above $39\frac{1}{4}$ d. at three months' date, the loss by interest and charges being merely counterbalanced by that rate.

19. It has further to be observed, that no intrinsic par can properly be established between the Russian and British silver coins, the troy pound of 12 ounces mint silver being coined into 66 shillings, or 5s. 6d. per ounce, while in the London market the price of standard or mint silver varies between 4s. 9d. and 5s. only, and is seldom worth even the latter rate, which accordingly is the utmost that the British merchant could esteem Russian silver to be worth to him. But between British mint silver and Russian silver coin, a conditional par may be established by the following proportions, namely—a troy pound of mint silver, assumed at a market price of 5s. per standard ounce, stands in 60 shillings sterling, and contains 11 oz. 2 dwt. pure silver, equal to 7778½ parts Russian weight, of which 405 parts go to 1 silver rouble, producing 12½ silver roubles. The equivalent of one silver rouble would accordingly be 37½d. sterling, and the loss of interest with expenses of importing it into Russia being assumed at 1½d., the cost at St.

Petersburgh, to be covered by remittances in bills at three months' date, would be 39d. sterling per silver rouble.

20. Considerable quantities of silver in bars being imported into St. Petersburg from Hamburg, by way of Lubeck, per steamers, we think it right to give the following calculation of such an operation, (founded on a real transaction,) supposing it to have taken place for London account :—

5 casks silver bullion held 14 bars, which weighed in Hamburg 1709 marks, 1 loth, and were assayed there as containing 1689 marks, 6 loths, 11 grains fine, and which, bought at Bco. m. 27 12, stood in.....Bco. m. 46881 4
This prime cost, reckoned at 13m. 5s. per £. makes.....£3521 2s. 6d. stlg.
(1689mx 6L. 11g. being equal to 12,695½ troy ounces pure silver, the ounce came to 5s. 6½d. stlg.)

Insurance on Bco. m. 47730, at ½ per cent.....	Bco. m. 119 6
Commission on ditto at ½ per cent.....	59 11
Brokerage on ditto at ½ per cent.....	59 11
Stamp and policy.....	22 8
	<hr/> 261 4
Casks and expenses.....	Bco. m. 28 8
Commission ½ per cent.....	234 9
Expenses to and at Lubeck.....	68 6
Brokerage of drafts on London 1 per mille.....	47 8
Postages.....	8 9
	<hr/> 387 9

Cost at Hamburg.....Bco. m. 47530 0

2d August, drawn for on London at one month date, (due 5th Sept.) at an exchange of 13m. 5s. per £. in.....£3570 6 7
Against which the remittance of the nett proceeds from St. Petersburg, procured there the 25th August, O. S., at three months' date, fell due in London on the 9th December; the 95 days interest incurred at 5 per cent per annum, make.....46 9 3
Freight and charges at St. Petersburg, as under, sil. ro. 217 84c. at 40d. 36 6 2

Total cost.....£3653 2 0

The prime cost at Hamburg being only £3521 2s. 6d., the expenses incurred accordingly amounted to £131 19s. 6d., or 3¾ per ct., inclusive of 1½ per ct. for commissions.

21. These 14 bars silver weighed at St. Petersburg 976 lb. 12 z. fine, per assay of the Hamburg bank, and were found to be equal to 961 lb. 84z. 77p. fine, per assay at the Russian mint, to be paid for in ready coin, at the fixed rate of 22½ silver roubles per lb., making silver ro. 21882 84co. received, which at the exchange of 40d. per rouble, amounted to.....£3647 2 10

The charges deducted at St. Petersburg were :— Sil. Ro.

Freight from Lubeck per steamer, Bco. m. 129 1 at 38½s...	58 38
Landing, entry, and delivering at the mint.	43 0
Commission on sil. ro. 21882 84c. at ½ per cent.....	109 41
Postages.....	7 5

Sil. Ro. 217 84 at 40d. 36 6 2

Nett proceeds.....£3610 16 8

Remitted for 25th August, O. S., in bills at 3 months' date, to cover the Hamburg draft of £3570 6s. 7d., making, with interest in London, £3616 15s. 10d. Accordingly an exchange of no less than 40½d. per silver rouble was required.

22. The annual balance of trade between Great Britain and Russia, being considerably in favor of the latter country, the Russian exchange on London generally rules above the par of 39½d., particularly during the height of the shipping season; and is only reduced to that par, or brought under it, when a high course has attracted a considerable im-

portation of foreign gold and silver, counterbalancing the excess of the exportation of produce. During the winter season, between December and May, it sometimes happens that Russia has more to remit for to Great Britain and the continent, than to draw in; and when that is the case, the exchange is found to rule under the par of $39\frac{1}{4}$ d.; but such decline seldom exceeds 2 per cent, while the advance above par in autumn, has in some years been found to reach 5 to 8 per cent; particularly when there is a demand for Russian corn. This summer (1839) we received pretty considerable supplies of foreign gold and silver; and, since the re-establishment of the silver standard of currency, the course of exchange has not varied much. The quotations at St. Petersburg on London were—on the 11th July, O. S., $39\frac{1}{4}$ d.; the 11th August, 40 to $39\frac{1}{4}$ d.; the 12th September, $39\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; the 13th October, $39\frac{1}{4}$ d.; the 10th November, $38\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ d.; the 17th November, $38\frac{1}{2}$ d.; and the 1st December, $38\frac{1}{2}$ to $38\frac{1}{2}$ d. per silver rouble.

23. Table, showing the value of £1 to £100,000 sterling, in silver copecks; and of Rouble 1 to 100,000 silver, in pence British sterling, at progressive courses of exchange, for simplifying the arithmetical operation of conversion:—

Exchange.	Value of £1 to £100,000 in silver copecks.	Value of Ro. 1 to Ro. 100,000 silver in pence ster- ling.	Exchange.	Value of £1 to £100,000 in silver copecks.	Value of Ro. 1 to Ro. 100,000 silver in pence ster- ling.
$38\frac{1}{2}$	6.23,376.62	38,50000	$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.94,427.24	40,37500
$38\frac{1}{3}$	6.22,866.29	38,56250	$40\frac{1}{4}$	5.93,508.50	40,43750
$38\frac{1}{4}$	6.21,359.22	38,62500	$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.92,592.59	40,50000
$38\frac{1}{2}$	6.20,355.41	38,68750	$40\frac{3}{4}$	5.91,679.51	40,56250
$38\frac{3}{4}$	6.19,354.84	38,75000	$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.90,769.23	40,62500
$38\frac{1}{2}$	6.18,357.49	38,81250	$40\frac{1}{4}$	5.89,861.75	40,68750
$38\frac{1}{4}$	6.17,363.34	38,87500	$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.88,957.06	40,75000
$38\frac{1}{2}$	6.16,372.39	38,93750	$40\frac{3}{4}$	5.88,055.13	40,81250
39	6.15,384.62	39,00000	$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.87,155.96	40,87500
$39\frac{1}{8}$	6.14,400.00	39,06250	$40\frac{1}{4}$	5.86,259.54	40,93750
$39\frac{1}{4}$	6.13,418.53	39,12500	41	5.85,365.85	41,00000
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.12,440.19	39,18750	$41\frac{1}{8}$	5.84,474.89	41,06250
$39\frac{3}{4}$	6.11,464.96	39,25000	$41\frac{1}{4}$	5.83,586.62	41,12500
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.10,492.85	39,31250	$41\frac{3}{8}$	5.82,701.06	41,18750
$39\frac{1}{4}$	6.09,523.81	39,37500	$41\frac{1}{2}$	5.81,818.18	41,25000
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.08,557.84	39,43750	$41\frac{5}{8}$	5.80,937.97	41,31250
$39\frac{3}{4}$	6.07,594.94	39,50000	$41\frac{1}{4}$	5.80,060.42	41,37500
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.06,635.07	39,56250	$41\frac{3}{4}$	5.79,185.52	41,43750
$39\frac{3}{4}$	6.05,678.23	39,62500	$41\frac{1}{2}$	5.78,313.25	41,50000
$39\frac{1}{4}$	6.04,724.41	39,68750	$41\frac{5}{8}$	5.77,443.61	41,56250
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.03,773.58	39,75000	$41\frac{3}{4}$	5.76,576.58	41,62500
$39\frac{3}{4}$	6.02,825.75	39,81250	$41\frac{1}{4}$	5.75,712.14	41,68750
$39\frac{1}{2}$	6.01,880.87	39,87500	$41\frac{3}{8}$	5.74,850.30	41,75000
$39\frac{1}{4}$	6.00,938.97	39,93750	$41\frac{1}{2}$	5.73,991.03	41,81250
40	6.00,000.00	40,00000	$41\frac{5}{8}$	5.73,134.33	41,87500
$40\frac{1}{8}$	5.99,063.96	40,06250	$41\frac{3}{4}$	5.72,280.18	41,93750
$40\frac{1}{4}$	5.98,130.84	40,12500	42	5.71,428.57	42,00000
$40\frac{3}{8}$	5.97,200.62	40,18750	$42\frac{1}{8}$	5.70,579.49	42,06250
$40\frac{1}{2}$	5.96,273.29	40,25000	$42\frac{1}{4}$	5.69,732.93	42,12500
$40\frac{3}{4}$	5.95,348.84	40,31250	$42\frac{3}{8}$	5.68,888.89	42,18750

24. With reference to the foregoing table, the value of any given sum may, at any given exchange, be easily calculated by the rule of decimal fractions. If, for instance, the given course be $39\frac{1}{8}$ d. per silver rouble, look for it in the table, and you will find that—

£	S. R. Co.	Ro. S.	£ s. d.
1 makes	$6.04\frac{7}{8}$	And 1 makes	$39\frac{68750}{1000000}$ d. or 0 3 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
10	$60.47\frac{1}{2}$	10	$396\frac{8750}{1000000}$ 1 13 0 $\frac{1}{2}$
100	$604.72\frac{1}{8}$	100	$3,968\frac{750}{1000000}$ 16 10 8 $\frac{1}{2}$
1000	$6,047.24\frac{1}{8}$	1000	$39,687\frac{50}{1000000}$ 165 7 3 $\frac{1}{2}$
10000	$60,472.44\frac{1}{8}$	10000	$396,875\frac{0}{1000000}$ 1,653 12 11
100000	604,724.41	100000	3,968,750 16,536 9 2

Further: Wanted the amount of £525, at $39\frac{1}{8}$ d. ? Solution: Multiply by 60,377,358; divide by 100,000, and you get S. Ro. 3169 81 $\frac{1}{2}$ cop. Wanted the amount of S. Ro. 2325, at $39\frac{1}{8}$ d. ? Solution: multiply by 3981,250, divide by 100,000, and you get 92564 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., or £385 13s. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. Expert calculators well know, that in decimals, both the multiplicator and divisor may be shortened, by striking off from each such an equal number of figures from the right side, as will reduce the decimal fraction to hundredth, instead of the hundredth thousandth parts of copecks or pence, implied by the table, thereby shortening the operation. For instance: if the above multiplicators be only assumed, 60377 $\frac{1}{2}$ or 3981 $\frac{1}{2}$, then the corresponding divisor is only 100, producing the same results, within a scarcely perceptible difference in the last fraction of a copeck or penny.

25. Although it is enacted, that the prices of merchandise are to be fixed in silver roubles, yet, the old bank note roubles remaining in circulation, as an auxiliary tender of payment, at the invariable rate of 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ro. for 1 S. Ro. ; it may frequently occur, that prices be quoted in bank notes, without mentioning their silver equivalents, at which accounts have to be made out. In order to facilitate the checking of the latter, we think it right to give the following

Table of Equivalents of the Old Bank Notes and New Silver Prices.

EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.	
B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.
Rouble or Copeck.											
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	19	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	38	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	57	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	76	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	95	27 $\frac{1}{4}$
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	20	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	39	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	58	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	77	22	96	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	21	6	40	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	59	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	78	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	97	27 $\frac{1}{4}$
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	22	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	41	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	60	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	79	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	98	28
4	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	23	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	42	12	61	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	80	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	99	28 $\frac{1}{2}$
5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	43	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	62	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	81	23 $\frac{1}{4}$	100	28 $\frac{1}{4}$
6	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	25	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	44	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	63	18	82	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	101	28 $\frac{1}{2}$
7	2	26	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	45	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	64	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	83	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	102	29 $\frac{1}{4}$
8	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	27	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	46	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	65	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	84	24	103	29 $\frac{1}{4}$
9	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	28	8	47	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	85	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	104	29 $\frac{1}{4}$
10	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	29	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	48	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	67	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	86	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	105	30
11	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	30	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	49	14	68	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	87	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	106	30 $\frac{1}{2}$
12	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	50	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	69	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	88	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	107	30 $\frac{1}{4}$
13	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	51	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	70	20	89	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	108	30 $\frac{1}{2}$
14	4	33	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	52	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	71	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	90	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	109	31 $\frac{1}{4}$
15	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	34	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	53	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	72	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	91	26	110	31 $\frac{1}{2}$
16	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	35	10	54	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	73	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	92	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	111	31 $\frac{1}{4}$
17	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	55	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	74	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	93	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	112	32
18	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	37	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	56	16	75	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	94	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	113	32 $\frac{1}{4}$

TABLE OF EQUIVALENTS OF OLD BANK NOTES AND NEW SILVER PRICES.—Continued.

EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.		EQUIVALENT.	
B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.	B. N.	Silver.
114	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	139	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	164	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	189	54	214	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	239	68 $\frac{1}{2}$
115	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	140	40	165	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	190	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	215	61 $\frac{3}{4}$	240	68 $\frac{1}{2}$
116	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	141	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	166	47 $\frac{3}{4}$	191	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	216	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	241	68 $\frac{1}{2}$
117	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	142	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	167	47 $\frac{5}{8}$	192	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	217	62	242	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
118	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	143	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	168	48	193	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	218	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	243	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
119	34	144	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	169	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	194	55 $\frac{3}{4}$	219	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	244	69 $\frac{1}{2}$
120	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	145	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	170	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	195	55 $\frac{5}{8}$	220	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	245	70
121	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	146	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	171	48 $\frac{3}{4}$	196	56	221	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	246	70 $\frac{1}{2}$
122	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	147	42	172	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	197	56 $\frac{1}{2}$	222	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	247	70 $\frac{1}{2}$
123	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	148	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	173	49 $\frac{3}{4}$	198	56 $\frac{1}{2}$	223	63 $\frac{5}{8}$	248	70 $\frac{1}{2}$
124	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	149	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	174	49 $\frac{5}{8}$	199	56 $\frac{3}{4}$	224	64	249	71 $\frac{1}{2}$
125	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	150	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	175	50	200	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	225	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	250	71 $\frac{1}{2}$
126	36	151	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	176	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	201	57 $\frac{3}{4}$	226	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	251	71 $\frac{1}{2}$
127	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	152	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	177	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	202	57 $\frac{5}{8}$	227	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	252	72
128	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	153	43 $\frac{1}{2}$	178	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	203	58	228	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	253	72 $\frac{1}{2}$
129	36 $\frac{1}{2}$	154	44	179	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	204	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	229	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	254	72 $\frac{1}{2}$
130	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	155	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	180	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	205	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	230	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	255	72 $\frac{1}{2}$
131	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	156	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	181	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	206	58 $\frac{3}{4}$	231	66	256	73 $\frac{1}{2}$
132	37 $\frac{1}{2}$	157	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	182	52	207	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	232	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	257	73 $\frac{1}{2}$
133	38	158	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	183	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	208	59 $\frac{3}{4}$	233	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	258	73 $\frac{5}{8}$
134	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	159	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	184	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	209	59 $\frac{5}{8}$	234	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	259	74
135	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	160	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	185	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	210	60	235	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	260	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
136	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	161	46	186	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	211	60 $\frac{1}{2}$	236	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	261	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
137	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	162	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	187	53 $\frac{3}{4}$	212	60 $\frac{1}{2}$	237	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	262	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
138	39 $\frac{3}{4}$	163	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	188	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	213	60 $\frac{1}{2}$	238	68	263	75 $\frac{1}{2}$

BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

26. Description of Legal Bills in Russia—27. Responsibility by Bills—28. When and how Bills are to be presented for Acceptance—29. Drawers bound to give security in case of Non-acceptance Abroad—30. The Maturity of Bills at Sight and Usances; Exchange of Payment—31. Days of Grace—32. Protest for Non-payment—33. Bills protested, when to be recovered—34. The Action to be brought against the Debtor—35. Pain of Imprisonment in Default of Payment—36. Penalties levied on Protested Bills—37. List of Stamp Duties on Inland and Foreign Bills—38. Translated Form of a sole Inland Bill—39. Attestation of Signature and Indorsement—40. Rate of Discount on Inland Bills; Legal and Bank Interest.

26. The Russian law distinguishes:—1st, sole inland bills, as obligations of payment, issued by a debtor to the order of a creditor, and in which the former is, in one person, drawer, drawee, and acceptor; acknowledging to have received full value from the creditor in cash or goods; and 2d, drafts in first, second, third, &c., bills, issued by a drawer on a drawee, to the order of a taker or remitter; from whom the value is received, in cash, or in goods, or in account, at one place, on condition of payment at another. Both kinds of bills must be drawn on proper stamps; but drafts on foreign countries pay only half of the stamp duty imposed on sole inland bills.

27. Merchants only are allowed to bind themselves by, to draw, and accept bills. A bill may be granted also to the order of a person who is not a merchant; and such person may be the owner and holder of the bill, till maturity, for receiving payment; but cannot transfer or indorse it otherwise than "without recourse." A mercantile holder may indorse a bill *fully*, or merely *in blank*, as he thinks fit. All mercantile indorsers of a bill are responsible "in sol'dum," the same as the drawer and acceptor; unless the indorsement bear "without recourse." An indorser of a bill, having become so as

agent of the indorsee, in procuring the bill by order and for account of the latter, is not responsible for the drawer or preceding indorser, to such indorsee, except if he have engaged to guarantee; but he is answerable to other indorsees, succeeding the one for whom he had bought the bill.

28. A bill received for acceptance must be presented by the holder within 24 hours after receipt, say at latest on the following day, Sundays and holidays excepted. Bills drawn at sight must be presented for payment within 12 months, or forfeit the bill right. A drawee must grant or refuse acceptance within 24 hours after presentation. Bills drawn abroad on merchants in Russia, when presented for acceptance, must be accompanied by a copy on an adequate Russian stamp, upon which the drawer has to write his acceptance.

29. A remitter, receiving advice from his correspondent of the non-acceptance of a remittance made by him, is entitled to demand security from the drawer or preceding indorser, until the acceptance is granted.

30. A bill drawn "at sight," is payable within 24 hours after acceptance, (if no days of grace be craved.) A bill drawn simply "at usance," is due in 15 days from presentation and acceptance, (if no days of grace be craved.) Bills drawn on Russia in foreign money are payable in Russian currency, either at the exchange mentioned in or on the bill; or if none be mentioned, at the current course quoted upon 'change on the last bill day preceding maturity.

31. Bills drawn payable "at sight," are allowed three, and those made payable at usances after sight or date, or simply at "a usance," enjoy ten days of grace, including Sundays and holidays; except if the last day be such a one: in that case 4 and 11 days respectively are granted, counting the same from the first day after maturity.

32. Protest for non-payment must be made on the last day of grace, before sunset, against the acceptor and indorsers. After the acceptor, the last indorser is in turn first applied to for payment; if he refuse it also, the claim is then made on the next indorser, and so on to the first, mentioning all of them in the protest. But bills which remained without acceptance till maturity, have to be protested on the last day of maturity, without benefit of days of grace. In sole inland bills the signature of the drawer is also the acceptance, and the protest for non-payment to be levied on the last day of grace.

33. All the partners of a firm are "in sol'dam" answerable for an acceptance granted by any one of them, which has the signature of the firm. The payment of a bill protested for non-payment must be claimed and enforced by proceedings at law, within two years after protest; if this be not done, the benefit of coercion by bill right is forfeited, and it becomes a simple claim by promissory note. Bills not drawn on, or not presented for acceptance with a copy, on regular stamps, cannot be protested, and besides becoming simple promissory notes, the drawer is liable to a fine for having evaded the stamp duty.

34. An action to be brought against the drawer, acceptor, or indorser of a bill under protest for non-payment, has to be filed in the Police Court, who demand immediate payment of the bill; and if not forthwith discharged, proceed directly in seizing and realizing a sufficiency of the debtor's property, if such can be found; the debtor having in the mean while to find bail, in default whereof he is taken into custody.

35. If no property belonging to the debtor be discoverable, or if what is found prove insufficient for discharging his debt, the bail found by him is done away with, and he is sentenced to suffer pain of imprisonment; the duration of which for a sum exceeding 300 silver roubles, is two years. After the expiration of that term, his personal liberty is restored to him; but he remains answerable for the debt with such property as he may subsequently acquire or inherit. In all cases of non-payment, a debtor is besides

liable to be declared insolvent, by an action to be brought against him in the Commercial Court, or the Magistracy; where he is called to account, and subjected to the formalities and penalties provided by the insolvency laws. These laws we shall give in a future number of this magazine.

36. The amount of sole inland bills, recovered through the Police Court alone, is due with the addition of 2 per cent for loss of interest, and 2 per cent more, as simple penalty for irregular payment. But if the Commercial Court have also to interfere with proceedings or a sentence, then the addition is double, say 4 per cent for interest, and 4 per cent more for penalty. The amount of returned drafts on or from foreign parts, when recovered under protest, is claimed by an account of principal of value paid; with the addition of legal interest, expenses and difference of exchange, incurred by re-draft, as customary among merchants.

37. The stamp duty on sole inland bills is levied by the following scale of sums, required to be drawn; which stamps may severally be used for double the amount at the same duty, for drafts on foreign parts, viz:—

S. Ro.		S. Ro.		S. Ro.		S. Ro.	
For a sum of 1 to	150	the duty is	$\frac{3}{8}$	For a sum of	3001 to	4500	the duty is 9.
" "	151 to 300	$\frac{2}{5}$	" "	4501 to 6000	12.
" "	301 to 900	$1\frac{1}{2}$	" "	6001 to 7500	15.
" "	901 to 1500	3	" "	7501 to 9000	18
" "	1501 to 2000	$4\frac{1}{2}$	" "	9001 to 10000	21.
" "	2001 to 3000	6	" "	10001 to 12000	24.

For a sum of S. R. 12001 to 13000 the duty is S. R. 27, and for a sum of S. Ro. 13001 to 15000 the duty is S. Ro. 30. The stamps for seconds and thirds of any sum, cost $\frac{3}{8}$ Ro. S. each.

38. Translation of a sole inland bill:—

St. Petersburg, the 1st August, 1839.

Bill for 2000 Silver Roubles.

At the expiration of six months from this first day of August, in the year one thousand eight hundred and thirty-nine, I am bound to pay at St. Petersburg, by this my bill of exchange, to the St. Petersburg merchant, (or foreign guest,) of the first guild, Henry Dawson, or to his order, two thousand roubles silver, which sum I have received from him in full in goods, (or, in money.) Michael Peter's son Dmitrieff, Kaluga merchant of the second guild.

39. It is in the option of the taker of such a bill, to let the drawer's signature be attested thereon by a notary public, or not. In transfer the indorsement may be made either in full or in blank; the latter mode is most customary in discount business; but it is of course optional with the taker of a bill by indorsement from a second or third holder, to require the former, as an additional security; each indorsee named having to sign next as an indorser in turn.

40. The rate of discount in Russia for inland bills, transferred with one or more responsible indorsements, varies between $6\frac{1}{2}$ and 9 per cent per annum, but when a bill is taken without recourse on the indorser, an additional allowance is made according to the character and standing of the drawer. The simple legal interest for private loans is 6 per cent per annum. The loan and commercial banks of government, receiving voluntary private deposits of money to be invested in bank obligations, bearing interest, and made payable on demand per indorsement, allow only 4 per cent per annum interest, after the expiration of six months; with compound interest after a year, the principal and interest being payable together, as accumulated. Immense amounts of floating capital are constantly invested in these bank obligations, which supply the place of bankers, every merchant having to keep his own cash in Russia. These obligations circulate in the whole empire.

COMMERCIAL TABLES.

FRENCH COINS.

Table, showing the weights of the existing coins of France, with their diameters, etc., etc., etc.

DENOMINATIONS.	EXACT WEIGHT BY LAW.	WEIGHTS TOLERATED BY LAW.		DIAMETERS.
		Maximum.	Minimum.	
GOLD.				
40 franc pieces,	<i>Grammes.</i> 12.90322	<i>Grammes.</i> 12.92903	<i>Grammes.</i> 12.8774	<i>Millimetres.</i> 26
20 " "	6.45161	6.46451	6.43871	21
SILVER.				
5 franc pieces,	25.	25.075	24.925	37
2 " "	10.	10.05	9.95	27
1 " "	5.	5.025	4.975	23
1 f. 75 c. "	3.75	3.77625	3.72375	23
1 f. 50 c. "	2.5	2.5175	2.4825	18
1 f. 25 c. "	1.25	1.2625	1.2375	15
BILLON.				
10 centime pieces, . . .	2.	2.014	1.986	19
COPPER.				
10 centime pieces, . . .	20.	20.4	} <i>Not tolerated below nominal weight.</i>	31
5 " "	10.	10.2		27
3 " "	6.	6.12		25
2 " "	4.	4.08		23
1 " "	2.	2.04		23

. Coins formed of the same metal, and of the same value, are rigorously of the same diameter and thickness; and when the value of one pile is known, the contents of any other number of piles of the same height may readily be determined, as they contain the same number of pieces. Hence, from this exactness, the French measures of length may be ascertained with a tolerable degree of accuracy by means of coins. For example, a *metre* is equal to a pile of—

32 pieces of 40 francs, and 8 pieces of 20 francs.

11 pieces of 40 francs, and 34 pieces of 20 francs.

19 pieces of 5 francs, and 11 pieces of 2 francs.

20 pieces of 2 francs, and 20 pieces of 1 franc.

20 pieces of 5 centimes, and 20 pieces of 1 franc.

7 pieces of 10 centimes, and 29 pieces of 5 centimes.

TABLES OF COMMERCIAL WEIGHTS,
*Computed for the Merchants Magazine, conformably to M. MATHEU's Report to the
Royal Academy of Sciences of France.*

BULLION TABLES.

Computed for the Merchants' Magazine, agreeably to the Regulations of the United States Mint.

TABLE FOR CONVERTING FRENCH GRAMMES AND KILOGRAMMES INTO TROY OUNCES.										TABLE FOR CONVERTING TROY GRAINS AND OUNCES INTO FRENCH GRAMMES AND KILOGRAMMES.									
Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.	1000ths.	Grammes.	Ounces.
1	0.032	260	180	15.438	760	24.444	1	0.065	1	0.031	200	6.218	480	14.994	760	23.629	1	0.031	200
2	0.064	210	190	15.760	770	24.766	2	0.130	2	0.062	210	6.529	490	15.295	770	23.940	2	0.062	210
3	0.096	220	200	16.082	780	25.087	3	0.194	3	0.093	220	6.840	500	15.546	780	24.251	3	0.093	220
4	0.129	230	210	16.403	790	25.409	4	0.259	4	0.124	230	7.151	510	15.857	790	24.563	4	0.124	230
5	0.161	240	220	16.725	800	25.731	5	0.324	5	0.155	240	7.462	520	16.167	800	24.873	5	0.155	240
6	0.193	250	230	17.047	810	26.052	6	0.389	6	0.187	250	7.773	530	16.478	810	25.184	6	0.187	250
7	0.225	260	240	17.368	820	26.374	7	0.453	7	0.219	260	8.084	540	16.789	820	25.495	7	0.219	260
8	0.257	270	250	17.690	830	26.695	8	0.518	8	0.249	270	8.395	550	17.100	830	25.806	8	0.249	270
9	0.289	280	260	18.011	840	27.017	9	0.583	9	0.280	280	8.706	560	17.411	840	26.117	9	0.280	280
10	0.322	290	270	18.333	850	27.339	10	0.648	10	0.311	290	9.016	570	17.722	850	26.428	10	0.311	290
20	0.643	300	280	18.655	860	27.660	20	1.295	20	0.622	300	9.327	580	18.033	860	26.739	20	0.622	300
30	0.965	310	290	18.976	870	27.982	30	1.943	30	0.933	310	9.638	590	18.344	865	26.894	30	0.933	310
40	1.287	320	300	19.298	880	28.304	40	2.591	40	1.244	320	9.949	600	18.655	866	26.925	40	1.244	320
50	1.608	330	310	19.620	890	28.625	50	3.239	50	1.555	330	10.260	610	18.966	867	26.956	50	1.555	330
60	1.930	340	320	19.941	900	28.947	60	3.886	60	1.865	340	10.571	620	19.277	870	27.049	60	1.865	340
70	2.251	350	330	20.263	910	29.269	70	4.534	70	2.176	350	10.882	630	19.588	880	27.300	70	2.176	350
80	2.573	360	340	20.584	920	29.590	80	5.182	80	2.487	360	11.193	640	19.898	890	27.671	80	2.487	360
90	2.895	370	350	20.906	930	29.912	90	5.830	90	2.798	370	11.504	650	20.209	900	27.982	90	2.798	370
100	3.216	380	360	21.228	940	30.233	100	6.477	100	3.109	380	11.815	660	20.520	910	28.293	100	3.109	380
110	3.538	390	370	21.549	950	30.555	200	19.954	110	3.420	390	12.126	670	20.831	920	28.604	110	3.420	390
120	3.860	400	380	21.871	960	30.877	300	19.431	120	3.731	400	12.437	680	21.142	930	28.915	120	3.731	400
130	4.181	410	390	22.193	970	31.198	400	19.908	130	4.042	410	12.747	690	21.453	940	29.226	130	4.042	410
140	4.503	420	400	22.514	980	31.520	500	19.385	140	4.353	420	13.058	700	21.764	950	29.537	140	4.353	420
150	4.824	430	410	22.836	990	31.842	600	19.862	150	4.664	430	13.369	710	22.075	960	29.848	150	4.664	430
160	5.145	440	420	23.158	1000	32.163	700	19.339	160	4.975	440	13.680	720	22.386	970	30.159	160	4.975	440
170	5.468	450	430	23.479	800	19.816	170	5.286	450	13.991	730	22.697	980	30.469	170	5.286	450
180	5.789	460	440	23.801	900	19.293	180	5.596	460	14.302	740	23.008	990	30.780	180	5.596	460
190	6.111	470	450	24.122	1000	19.770	190	5.907	470	14.613	750	23.319	1000	31.091	190	5.907	470

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE COAST ABOUT ROTTENEST ISLAND.

FROM THE LONDON NAUTICAL MAGAZINE.

Rottenest Island, six miles in length, E. by N. and W. by S., with an extreme breadth of two miles and a half, has an irregular hummocky surface, not much wooded, and may now be distinguished from Garden Island and the contiguous main land by a white obelisk, fifteen feet in height, with a pole in the middle, of the same length, which has recently been erected on its highest part, near the centre of the island. This sea mark being elevated about 157 feet above the level of the sea, may be seen from a ship's deck in clear weather, at the distance of seven or eight leagues, and will shortly give place to a lighthouse of greater elevation. Its position, according to observations in H. M. S. Beagle, is lat. 32 deg. 0 min. 14 sec. south, long. 115 deg. 29 min. 6 sec. east from Greenwich.

To round the island on its north side, a ship should not approach nearer than one mile, in order to avoid the Horseshoe Rock, which lies three quarters of a mile off shore, at the distance of two miles north 39 deg. east from the island's west extremity, and Roes Reef, situated three quarters of a mile north 16 deg. west from a small rock with a cask beacon upon it, about half a cable's length from the island's northeast point. The beacon is upon Duck Rock, and the projection near it is Bathurst Point. A ship will be clear to the northward of Horseshoe Rock while Duck Rock beacon is kept open of the north point of Rottenest; and Roes Reef may be cleared on the north by keeping the west end of Rottenest (Cape Vlaming,) open of the north point, until Duck Rock bears south; a course may then be shaped about E. by S., for a remarkable white sand patch on the main, which will be distinctly visible three miles and a half north from the entrance to Swan River; and when some rocky islets near the southeast side of Rottenest are seen to the SSW., opening round the east end of another small rock with a cask beacon upon it, one mile and a quarter SE. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. from Dutch Rock, a SE. by E. course will conduct into Gage's Roads.

Kingston Spit, in front of Thompson's Bay, extends two miles east from Duck Rock, and a long mile NE. by E. from the beacon last mentioned, which has recently been placed upon Fisherman's Rock, a small mass of white rocks about two cables' length northeast from the sandy east point of Rottenest Island, distinguished by the name of Point Philip. To clear Kingston Spit on the north, keep Duck Rock a little shut into the south of a bare, pointed hill, near the northern shore of Rottenest; or should the bare hill not be distinguished, keep the north extreme of Rottenest to the southward of W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.; and to clear Kingston Spit on the south, keep the south extreme of Rottenest (Point Parker,) open of the next projection to the northeast of it (SW. by W.)—Thompson's Bay is a fit resort for boats only, being full of shoal rocky patches and small islets, to the distance of a mile from the shore, the remainder of Kingston Spit being occupied by low, uneven ground, with depths varying between five and two fathoms; near its north and east edges are seven fathoms, deepening to nine and ten in half a mile. Between Point Philip and the next projection, a long half mile to the SSW. (Bickley Point,) there is good shelter in Beagle's Anchorage from all the usual northwest and southwest gales of winter, the best berth being in four fathoms water, sandy ground, nearly half a mile south from Fisherman's Rock, and a quarter of a mile northeast from two small rocks called the Twins; the south point of Rottenest being also in a line with Bickley Point. In this situation a vessel should moor, on account of the limited space.

On the southeast side of Rottenest there is a good channel, two miles and a half wide,

called the southern passage into Gage's Roads, the only obstruction in it being a patch of three fathoms, sand and weeds, called Middle Bank, in line between Point Philip and the Champion Rocks, at one mile and three quarters from the former, and one mile and a quarter from the latter. After a gale, the northwest swell round the east end of Rottenest, crossing the ocean roll from the southwest, breaks heavily at this spot, and indicates its position; it may, however, be avoided by borrowing towards the rocky islets near Rottenest, which have no dangers fronting them beyond a cable's length; and the bank is cleared to the eastward when the beacon on Duck Rock opens round to the northeastward of that on Fisherman's Rock. These two beacons in a line lead also about a cable's length to the northeast of the Champion Rock, which has only nine feet water upon it, with four and five fathoms all around. This danger, which lies on the southeast side of the southern passage, is at the northwest extremity of a collection of rocks and foul ground that extends two miles and a half NNW. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. from the Stragglers towards the east end of Rottenest, without any channel among them which can yet be pronounced safe. In working up for the southern passage with a northerly wind, the Champion Rock and dangers in its vicinity may be avoided by keeping the high lump of rock called the Mewstone, open to the southwest of the largest and highest of the Stragglers, until the southwest end of Rottenest shuts in round its south point, bearing about W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N. This last mark will carry a ship clear between Champion Rock and Middle Bank; but should the Mewstone and Stragglers not be satisfactorily distinguished, the beacon on Fisherman's Rock should not be brought to bear more to the westward than north 30 deg. west by compass, until the southwest point is shut in by the south point of Rottenest, as before shown.

METHOD OF MANUFACTURING SHIP CORDAGE.

Henry Evans, of New Bedford, has invented a machine for the manufacture of ship cordage, which promises to be a discovery of great value to nautical men, and cannot fail of displacing the clumsy contrivances hitherto in use. The machine is of simple construction, and designed to be of such size that ten of them may be operated in a room 25 feet by 40, capable of producing six thousand fathoms of rope per hour. Mr. Evans has spent much time upon the subject, and has more than once abandoned the idea of success, but he has at length triumphed. Machines, invented by Mr. E., for spinning and tarring the yarn, are already in use at the Plymouth Cordage Manufactory. The present invention makes the apparatus complete, and, as before remarked, it cannot be other than of great utility and value.

ROCK NEAR CAPE BOUSSA.

The following authentic communication has been received at the New York Custom-house, and being regarded as interesting to American navigation in the Mediterranean, publicity is given to it by Edward Curtis, the Collector of Customs for the Port of New York:—

H. B. M. steam vessel *Lizard*, }
TANGIER BAY, May 12, 1841, }

SIR—I beg to acquaint you, for the information of the masters of vessels trading from the eastward to Tangier, that there is a rock, not marked in any chart, situated near Cape Boussa, one mile off shore, on which her majesty's brig *Jasseur* struck. Its bearings are the town of Tangier, half open off Cape Malabata, and Cape Boussa SE. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. The least water is 16 feet, at high water, deepening quickly to 5, 7, and 10 fathoms all around it, leaving a good passage in-shore of the rock. A vessel coming from the eastward will be clear of all danger by keeping the town of Tangier quite open off Cape Malabata.

W. G. B. EASTCOURT,
Lieut. commanding.

PROTECTION OF SHIPS FROM CORROSION AND DECAY

A late English paper contains an extract from the Dundee Courier, in which it is stated that a Mr. Wall, of Dundee, has invented a process for the protection of copper-bottomed vessels from corrosion and decay. The great advantage of the discovery of Mr. Wall consists in this, that he covers the copper with a thin coating of a poisonous composition, which, while it completely resists corrosion, by its poisonous qualities also prevents all destruction to the vessel by marine insects. This composition may be applied to iron, zinc, or any other cheap metal, which, when coated over with it, preserves ships as well as copper does. The prepared zinc is about one half, and the iron about one third the expense of copper. Certificates in evidence of these facts have been obtained from the officers of Sheerness dockyard, and from Professor Daniell, and other distinguished chemists; and it is furthermore stated that Mr. Wall's composition has been found in practice a complete safeguard to vessels for a period of not less than three years, while sailing in those latitudes where the marine insects are known to be most destructive. Mr. Wall's composition is now also extensively used as a coating for iron bolts and nails, being found completely to prevent their corrosion.

GRAHAM'S SHOAL.

This dangerous shoal lies in latitude 37 deg. 9 min. 5 sec. north, and longitude 12 deg. 43 min. 15 sec. east of Greenwich, which was obtained by a series of angles from known fixed stations on the coast of Sicily and Pantelleria, the atmosphere not being favorable for astronomical observations, although those obtained differed very triflingly from above. The summit or shoal part of the rock is of an oblong form; it lies northwest and southeast, it is forty fathoms in length, consisting of hard dark-colored pointed rocks with seaweed, the edge (which was clearly perceptible) is jagged, pointed, and steep. The least depth of water found on it was ten feet, but no doubt much less may be found with a calm sea. The average depth at the distance of eighty fathoms from its centre twenty-five fathoms cinders, and one quarter of a mile, sixty-five fathoms fine black sand. Fine scollops and other shellfish, with young coral, was dredged up. This shoal is extremely dangerous, from the great depth of water around it, and from the various and strong currents that prevail in its neighborhood, as well as the difficulty of seeing it, for it is visible only at a very short distance. Southwest Peak Pantelleria, south 54 deg. west; Peak Campo Bello, north 5 deg. 50 sec. west; town of Sciacca, north 40 deg. east; Cape Rosello, north 78 deg. 50 sec. east, from bearings found independent of the compass, variation 17 deg. 0 min. west. The current set over the rock to east and north, one mile and three-quarters per hour.

T. ELSON.

SUNKEN ROCK IN BASS STRAITS.

There are many unexplored parts in Bass Straits, and the approaches to King's Island are among them. The following danger has not yet appeared in the charts, and mariners must carefully attend to the account given of it by the Port Philip harbor-master:—

"Capt. Lewis, the harbor-master, on his late expedition to King's Island, in Bass Straits, in aid of the shipwrecked passengers and crew of the *Isabella*, discovered a very dangerous rock, nearly level with the sea at low water, and the tide breaking over it at times at high water. The rock is situated in lat. 40 deg. 9 min. south, seven or eight miles off the western side of King's Island. In-shore, three cables' length, Captain Lewis found thirteen fathoms' water; next east, no soundings."—*Port Philip Patriot*.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

ANNUAL EXPORT OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES.

COTTON, LINEN, SILK, AND WOOLLEN GOODS.

We have compiled from a variety of authentic sources, as parliamentary documents, etc., the following statistics of British manufactures, exhibiting the progress of this branch of the productive industry of the United Kingdom. The value of the exports, it will be seen, is carried out in dollars and cents, at the rate of \$4 44 the £, for the convenience of the American reader.

COTTON GOODS.—The total declared value of cotton manufactured goods, exported from British ports, was in—

1790.....£1,662,369 or \$7,380,918 36	1837.....£13,650,583 or \$60,608,588 52
1834..... 15,347,050 ... 68,140,902 00	1838..... 16,700,468 ... 74,150,077 92
1835..... 16,421,715 ... 72,912,414 60	1839..... 17,692,183 ... 78,553,292 52
1836..... 18,511,692 ... 82,191,912 48	1840..... 17,567,310 ... 77,998,856 40

LINEN GOODS.—The declared value of linen manufactured goods exported from the United Kingdom in the years commencing 5th January, was in—

1834.....£2,443,344 or \$10,848,447 36	1838.....£2,919,719 or \$12,963,552 36
1835..... 2,992,142 ... 13,285,110 48	1839..... 3,414,967 ... 15,162,453 48
1836..... 3,326,323 ... 14,768,874 12	1840..... 3,306,088 ... 14,679,030 72
1837..... 2,326,323 ... 13,328,874 12	1841.....

SILK GOODS.—The declared value of manufactured silk goods exported from England in the years commencing January 5, was in—

1830.....£371,775 or \$1,650,681 00	1837.....£503,673 or \$2,236,308 12
1836..... 168,801 ... 749,476 44	1838..... 775,031 ... 3,498,857 64
1834..... 637,197 ... 2,829,154 68	1839..... 868,118 ... 3,854,448 92
1835..... 973,785 ... 4,323,605 40	1840..... 792,648 ... 3,519,357 12
1836..... 917,821 ... 4,075,125 24	1841.....

A considerable part of these silk goods, it is a remarkable fact, have even been exported to France, the most formidable rival of Great Britain in this branch of manufactures. The exports of silk goods to France were—in 1832, £57,187; in 1833, £76,525; 1834, £60,346; 1835, £45,612; 1836, £48,160; 1837, £43,144; 1838, £56,698; 1839, £44,628.

WOOLLEN GOODS.—Declared value of British manufactured woollen goods, exported from the United Kingdom in the years commencing Jan. 5th:—

1815.....£9,381,426 or \$41,653,531 44	1836.....£7,639,853 or \$33,918,727 32
1818..... 8,140,767 ... 36,145,005 48	1837..... 4,665,977 ... 20,716,937 88
1822..... 6,488,167 ... 28,807,461 48	1838..... 5,792,156 ... 25,717,172 64
1830..... 4,728,666 ... 20,995,277 04	1839..... 6,271,645 ... 27,846,103 80
1834..... 5,736,870 ... 25,471,702 80	1840..... 5,327,853 ... 23,655,667 32
1835..... 6,840,510 ... 30,371,864 40	1841.....

BRITISH COTTON TRADE.

Exports to the continent of Europe, 1841, to 1st of August, 1841, (eight months):—

American..... 20,427 bales.	British India..... 23,715 bales
Brazilian..... 1,760 do.	Other kinds..... 2,200 do.

The imports of India cotton into England, from the 1st of January to 1st of August, 1841, amounted to 98,836 bales; and during the same period in 1840 amounted to 93,186 bales; showing an increase, in favor of 1841, of 5650 bales.

The imports of cotton from the British West Indies into England from 1st January to 1st of August, 1841, was 5096 bales; same period in 1840, only 2821; increase from 1840, of 2275 bales.

BRITISH WHEAT AND FLOUR TRADE.

An Account of the Average Price of Wheat in Great Britain, in the year 1840, together with the total number of quarters of foreign and colonial wheat and wheat flour imported in the same year; distinguishing foreign from colonial, and the quantities entered for home consumption; also the average price of wheat at Dantzic, Odessa, and Rotterdam, for the same year, as far as they can be ascertained: from the report of Mr. IRVING, inspector-general of imports and exports, customhouse, London, June 5, 1841.

Average price of wheat in Great Britain, 66s. 4d.

Total number of quarters of wheat and wheat flour imported, 2,433,202 qrs.

Total number of quarters of foreign wheat and wheat flour imported, 2,284,482 qrs.

Total number of quarters of colonial wheat and wheat flour imported, 148,720 qrs.

Total number of quarters of wheat and wheat flour imported, and entered for home consumption, 2,401,366 qrs.

Average price of wheat at Dantzic, 39s. 6d.

Average price of wheat at Odessa, 24s. 9d.

Average price of wheat at Rotterdam, 49s. 11d.

An Account, showing the total quantities of wheat and wheat flour imported from foreign countries and from British colonies, and upon which duty has been paid since the passing of the Act 9th George IV., c. 60, (July 15, 1828,) to January 5th, 1841, showing also the total quantity of foreign and colonial wheat and flour respectively, which has been subjected to each separate rate of duty: from the same.

FOREIGN.

Duty paid thereon.			WHEAT.	WHEAT FLOUR.	Duty paid thereon.			WHEAT.	WHEAT FLOUR.
£ s. d.			Quarters.	Cwts.	£ s. d.			Quarters.	Cwts.
0 1 0	per quarter,		3,907,981	1,276,731	1 16 8	"		826	42
0 2 8	"		2,788,277	835,406	1 17 8	"		314	24
0 6 8	"		1,994,102	518,897	1 18 8	"		154	72
0 10 8	"		783,280	238,592	1 19 8	"		151	51
0 13 8	"		548,348	466,432	2 0 8	"		3	—
0 16 8	"		298,677	213,707	2 2 8	"		7	3
0 18 8	"		76,200	44,788	2 3 8	"		4	7
1 0 8	"		377,667	96,538	2 4 8	"		16	13
1 1 8	"		107,005	5,861	2 5 8	"		62	33
1 2 8	"		13,664	5,940	2 6 8	"		10	155
1 3 8	"		138,775	56,530	2 7 8	"		7	17
1 4 8	"		37,329	2,070	2 8 8	"		3	2
1 5 8	"		27,153	1,555	2 9 8	"		2	36
1 6 8	"		4,724	654	2 10 8	"		8	56
1 7 8	"		1,882	690	Admitted at an ad val. orem duty, being da- maged,.....			2,629	—
1 8 8	"		134,275	1,377					
1 9 8	"		61,649	101	Admitted duty free, being damaged,.....			—	350
1 10 8	"		13,955	756					
1 11 8	"		1,496	87	or seed,.....			71	—
1 13 8	"		908	511					
1 14 8	"		385	164	Total,.....			11,322,085	3,768,335
1 15 8	"		154	24					

BRITISH COLONIAL.

				Wheat.	Wheat Flour.
				Quarters.	Cwts.
When the rate of duty on wheat was 0s. 6d. per quarter,				129,858	426,890
" " " " 5s. 0d. "				393,407	596,906
Total,.....				523,265	1,023,805

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The following table exhibits the immense amount of trade which is annually carried on between this country and Great Britain; also clearly exhibiting the fact that we take from Great Britain, in manufactures, on an average of years, the whole value of the produce exported to that country:—

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Value (in dollars) of IMPORTS into Great Britain and Ireland from the United States.</i>	<i>Value (in dollars) of EXPORTS from Great Britain and Ireland to the United States.</i>
1831	26,329,352	24,539,214
1832	30,810,995	36,921,265
1833	32,363,450	37,845,824
1834	44,212,097	47,242,807
1835	52,180,977	61,249,527
1836	57,875,213	78,645,968
1837	54,683,797	44,886,943
1838	52,176,610	44,861,973
1839	59,896,212	65,964,588

THE BRITISH CORN LAWS

The question having been fairly submitted to the people of Great Britain, in their ultimate constitutional capacity, at the polls, whether they would adopt something more like reciprocity, and nearer akin to free trade, or would adhere to the system which has so long and is still operating so disadvantageously to us, and they, by electing a decided majority of the tory party to parliament upon the express ground that, if elected, they would continue that policy, it now becomes the duty of every American citizen to acquaint himself with the scope of those said corn laws, and discern how it is that they affect our trade.

To facilitate this object, we subjoin a tabular statement of the duty payable, per barrel, on American flour, under the corn laws of Great Britain, carefully prepared by an American merchant, resident in Liverpool.

By act 9, of George IV., ch. 60, the duty on foreign wheat is as follows, viz:—when the average price of wheat is at and above—

<i>Per quarter.</i>	<i>Duty per quarter.</i>	<i>Duty per bbl. on flour.</i>	<i>Per quarter.</i>	<i>Duty per quarter.</i>	<i>Duty per bbl. on flour.</i>
73s.	1s. 0d.	0s. 7 7.32d.	57s.	29s. —d.	17 10 5.32d.
72	2 8	1 7 1.4	56	30 8	18 5 3.8
71	6 8	4 0 1.8	55	31 —	19 0 19.32
70	10 8	6 5	54	32 8	19 7 26.32
69	13 8	8 2 21.32	53	33 —	20 3 1.32
67	18 8	11 2 5.16	52	34 8	20 10 1.4
66	20 8	12 5 3.16	50	36 8	22 5 15.32
65	21 8	13 0 13.32	49	37 —	22 7 29.32
64	22 8	13 7 5.8	48	38 8	23 3 1.8
63	23 8	14 2 27.32	47	39 —	23 10 11.32
62	24 8	14 10 1.6	46	40 8	24 5 9.16
61	25 —	15 5 9.32	45	41 —	25 0 25.32
60	26 8	16 0	44	42 8	25 8
59	27 —	16 7 23.32	43	43 —	26 7 7.32
58	28 8	17 2 15.16			

On barley and Indian corn, if the average price is 31s. and under 34s. the duty is 10s. 4d. per imperial quarter, and for every 1s. per quarter it advances, the duty is decreased 1s. 6d. until it reaches 41s. per qr., at which price and upwards, no more than 1s

per qr. is levied; and the duty increases in like manner 1s. 6d. per qr. as the price declines 1s. or part of 1s. under 38s. per quarter.

On oats, if the average price is 25s. and under 26s. per qr. the duty is 2s. 9d. per qr.; decreasing 1s. 6d. per qr. as the average price advances 1s. until it reaches 31s., where at that price or more, the duty is only 1s. per qr.; and in like manner it is increased 1s. 6d. per qr. for every 1s. or part of 1s. per qr. the average recedes below 24s. per qr.

For the convenience of those who do not readily understand quarters and sterling money, I. H. Hedley has prepared the following tables exhibiting the rates of duty per bushel in federal money, together with the duty on flour per barrel in federal money, so arranged that they correspond with the preceding table, and will be at once understood. Thus, when wheat is at and over—

Per bushel.			Duty per bushel.		On flour per bbl.		Per bushel.			Duty per bushel.		On flour per barrel.				
\$2	02c.	6m.	02c.	8m.		13c.	0m.	\$1	57c.	5m.		80c.	5m.	\$3	95c.	9m.
1	99	8	04	9		35	2	1	55	4		85	1	4	08	8
1	97	0	18	5		88	8	1	52	6		86	0	4	21	8
1	94	2	29	6	\$1	42	4	1	49	6		90	6	4	34	8
1	91	5	37	9	1	81	3	1	47	1		91	6	4	49	6
1	88	7	46	2	2	22	0	1	44	3		94	9	4	62	5
1	85	9	51	8	2	47	9	1	41	5		97	1	4	75	4
1	83	1	57	3	2	75	7	1	38	7	\$1	01	7	4	88	4
1	80	4	60	1	2	88	6	1	35	9	1	02	7	5	01	4
1	77	6	62	9	3	01	6	1	33	2	1	07	3	5	16	1
1	74	8	65	7	3	14	5	1	30	4	1	08	2	5	29	1
1	72	0	68	4	3	29	3	1	27	6	1	12	8	5	42	0
1	69	3	69	4	3	42	2	1	24	6	1	13	8	5	55	0
1	66	5	74	0	3	55	6	1	22	1	1	18	4	5	69	6
1	63	7	74	9	3	68	6	1	19	3	1	19	3	5	90	2
1	60	9	79	5	3	81	1									

Mr. Hedley observes—"From the inspection of the preceding tables, it will be seen that the duty on flour is fifty per cent higher than on grain; consequently, shippers generally send wheat in bulk to England, unless the price is very high, when the duty is so small as to make the freightage more than to counterbalance the extra duties. At best, however, it is but a hazardous business, and often attended with ruinous loss to American exporters. The extra duty on flour is no doubt intended as a sort of protective tariff to English flour manufacturers, and is abundantly characteristic of English tact and statesmanship. I have no wish to make comments now; the time is coming when this subject will be canvassed in all its parts, and an administration elected that will put forth all its power to procure either a total repeal of these unjust laws, or such a modification of them as will justify American merchants in seeking the ports of Great Britain as an available market for our increasing surplus of breadstuffs."

BRITISH TRADE WITH THE EAST INDIES.

According to Mr. Stikeman's comparative statement of the number of British ships, with tonnage, etc., which entered inwards and cleared outwards from and to places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for the quarter ending 30th June, 1841, it appears that the total number of ships entered inwards was 402, with 158,388 tonnage, and 8,249 men, showing, as compared with the same quarter of 1840, an increase of 83 ships, 35,139 tonnage, and 1,602 men. Of this total amount, 278 ships, 111,423 tonnage, and 6,056 men entered at London; 90 ships, 35,172 tonnage, and 1,583 men entered at Liverpool; 9 ships, 2,206 tonnage, and 166 men entered at Clyde, Leith, and other British ports.

The arrivals were as follows:—125 ships from Calcutta; 5 from Madras; 35 from Bombay; 14 from China; 9 from Ceylon; 26 from Singapore and Penang, (British settlements); 13 from Philippine islands; 17 from Java and Sumatra; 75 from the island of Mauritius; 32 from New South Wales; 1 from Madagascar; 37 from Cape of Good Hope; and 11 from other ports.

The clearances outwards comprised a total of 490 ships, 194,728 tonnage, and 9,963 men, which, as compared with the same period of 1840, gives an increase of 75 ships, 40,147 tonnage, and 1,480 men.

COFFEE TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM 1831 to 1840.

Samuel Hazard, Esq., of the United States Commercial and Statistical Register, in reply to an inquiry of a member of congress relative to the comparative prices of coffee for a series of years prior to, and since, the act of 1833, abolishing the duties, has prepared the following table, taking the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury as the basis of his calculations. "We know of no other mode of arriving at the facts, although we are aware, from the circumstance of the different qualities of coffee being all blended together, the average thus obtained will not, probably, correspond with the actual price of any particular quality taken separately. But, for the general purpose of the present inquiry, this mode of arriving at the desired information may be a sufficiently close approximation to the truth. The value and prices of the imports being obtained from the invoices, must show correctly the cost at the place of purchase. The value of the exports is, we presume, a general average of the prices throughout the year, as obtained at the Treasury Department—and, we learn, from the customhouse—is the value of the article at the 'short price,' that is, with the drawback taken off. By adding therefore 5 cents to the prices of exports from 1831 to 1833, the average price per pound based on the valuation by the secretary may be ascertained.

IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND VALUE OF COFFEE.

* *Viz*:—Previous to the 4th March, 33,326,120 lbs., valued at \$3,570,240; after 4th March, 66,626,900 lbs., at \$6 997,051; making the total import for 1833 as per table.

REMARKS ON THE PRECEDING TABLE.

The importations from 1826 to 1832, both inclusive, were.....lbs. 418,667,681
 Do. from 1834 to 1840,.....655,116,660

Being an increase of.....236,448,979
 in the seven years succeeding 1833 over those prior to that year.

The exportations from 1826 to 1832 were.....141,836,657
 Do. 1834 to 1840,.....96,283,071

Being a decrease of.....45,553,586
 in the seven years succeeding 1833, as compared with the seven preceding it.

The consumption from 1826 to 1832 was.....276,831,024
 Do. 1834 to 1840,.....558,883,589

Being an increase of.....282,002,565
 in the consumption of the last seven years over the former.

The average price of the importations from 1826 to 1832 was 9 3-10 cents per lb.; and from 1834 to 1840 was 9 7-10, being a difference of 4-10 of a cent per lb. against the latter seven years.

The average price of exportations from 1826 to 1832 was 10 5-10 cents; and from 1834 to 1840 was 11 5-10, being 1 cent per lb. against the latter seven years.

It would appear from these statements, that since 1833 the amount of coffee imported has increased 56 47-100 per cent, while that exported has diminished 32 12-100 per cent. That the amount consumed has increased 101 40-100 per cent. That the cost of the article in the places of growth has advanced, as has also the price in the United States.

The great increase of consumption therefore would seem to have been induced by some other cause than the removal of the duties—probably the increase of population—and perhaps the facilities of transportation enabling it to reach the consumer in the interior at a diminished expense, while the demand has sustained the price in the market.

The increase of population between 1830 and 1840 has been about 39 2-10 per cent.

The amount consumed from 1826 to 1832 would furnish to each individual in the United States, according to the census of 1830, 3 7-10 lb. per annum; and the quantity consumed from 1834 to 1840, according to the population of 1840, would allow to each individual 4 7-10 lbs., being an increase in the latter period of 1 lb. to each, per annum.

This is independently, in both cases, of the consumption of 1833, which year has been excluded from all the preceding calculations.

Owing to the high prices of tea, it is probable that the consumption of coffee will be further extended during the present year."

AMERICAN WHALE FISHERY.

The Nantucket Inquirer publishes monthly a compendium of all the vessels engaged in this pursuit. From the list it appears that the whole number of vessels employed is 588, of which 192 sail are from New Bedford; Nantucket, 84; Fairhaven, 42; New London, 38; Sagharbor, 31; Warren, 21; Edgartown, 12; Salem, 12; Newport, 11; Stonington, 10. The others are scattered along the coast from Portland, Me., to Wilmington, Del., the latter place having 3, and the others from 1 to 10. Most of these vessels are ships, and many of them are of the largest class. Taking \$20,000 as the average cost of each ship and outfits, the capital invested amounts to \$11,700,000. The importation of oil into the United States during the month of August, 1841, was—of sperm oil, 11,630 barrels, or 366,345 gallons; of whale oil, 16,250 barrels, or 511,875 gallons—(in ten ships and two barks.) Of this amount 9,980 barrels of sperm oil and 6,700 whale oil were imported into New Bedford.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

POPULATION, ETC., OF ILLINOIS, IN 1840.

A Table, showing the population of each county in the state of Illinois, taken at the census of 1840; also, the number of square miles in the several counties in that state; from official documents, compiled by J. A. TOWNSEND, Esq., of Alton, Illinois.

COUNTIES.	Popula- tion.	Square Miles.	COUNTIES.	Popula- tion.	Square Miles.
Adams,.....	14,461	791	Livingston,.....	759	1,028
Alexander,.....	3,316	369	Logan,.....	2,333	576
Bond,.....	5,004	300	Madison,.....	14,433	790
Boone,.....	1,705	414	Monroe,.....	4,490	360
Brown,.....	4,182	306	Marion,.....	4,742	576
Bureau,.....	3,063	810	Montgomery,.....	4,470	684
Cass,.....	2,968	288	Macoupin,.....	7,832	864
Carroll,.....	1,023	432	Morgan,.....	19,154	612
Calhoun,.....	1,741	252	McLean,.....	6,792	1,512
Clinton,.....	3,724	468	Macon,.....	3,038	972
Cook,.....	10,201	1,008	M'Donough,.....	5,304	576
Champaign,.....	1,475	1,116	Mercer,.....	2,352	558
Clay,.....	3,229	576	M'Henry,.....	2,578	486
Crawford,.....	4,468	410	Marshall,.....	1,849	468
Clark,.....	7,584	504	Menard,.....	4,426	504
Coles,.....	9,616	1,008	Ogle,.....	3,490	756
Christian,.....	1,877	720	Pope,.....	3,220	504
De Kalb,.....	1,708	648	Perry,.....	3,220	432
De Witt,.....	3,247	510	Pike,.....	11,736	792
Du Page,.....	3,533	378	Putnam,.....	2,131	252
Effingham,.....	1,676	486	Peoria,.....	6,028	668
Edwards,.....	3,107	216	Randolph,.....	7,915	576
Edgar,.....	8,237	504	Rock Island,.....	2,619	432
Fayette,.....	6,334	720	Scott,.....	6,223	216
Franklin,.....	3,683	432	St. Clair,.....	13,629	684
Fulton,.....	13,149	918	Shelby,.....	6,673	900
Gallatin,.....	10,913	768	Sangamon,.....	14,716	828
Greene,.....	11,963	504	Schuyler,.....	6,927	360
Henry,.....	1,262	756	Stark,.....	1,573	360
Hardin,.....	1,329	104	Stephenson,.....	2,896	276
Hamilton,.....	3,963	423	Tazewell,.....	7,220	992
Hancock,.....	9,901	756	Union,.....	5,523	385
Iroquois,.....	1,693	1,404	Vermilion,.....	9,306	1,692
Johnson,.....	3,640	484	Washington,.....	4,942	576
Jefferson,.....	5,765	576	White,.....	7,913	461
Jackson,.....	3,580	648	Wayne,.....	5,125	720
Jasper,.....	1,445	468	Wabash,.....	4,240	180
Jo Daviess,.....	6,180	720	Warren,.....	6,719	928
Jersey,.....	4,507	324	Will,.....	10,024	1,188
Kane,.....	6,501	648	Winnebago,.....	4,608	432
Knox,.....	7,062	720	Whitesides,.....	2,515	720
Lawrence,.....	7,075	540	Williamson,.....	4,282	432
La Salle,.....	9,877	1,692			
Lake,.....	2,634	450			
Lee,.....	2,033	720			
			TOTAL,.....	476,273	54,604

WHITES.

Under—	Males.	Females.	Under—	Males.	Females.	Under—	Males.	Females.
5 years,	48,004.....	44,067	40 years,	31,075.....	23,367	90 y'rs.	232.....	183
10 "	37,375.....	33,909	50 "	15,623.....	12,508	100 "	33.....	36
15 "	31,066.....	28,333	60 "	8,558.....	6,525	110 "	9.....	3
20 "	24,882.....	24,189	70 "	5,090.....	2,871			
30 "	51,921.....	38,864	80 "	1,106.....	848	TOTAL,	254,904	215,703

COLORED.

Free,.....	Males, 1,843.....	Females, 1,655
Slaves,.....	" 142.....	" 161
TOTAL,.....		1,985
		1,816

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED IN

Mining,.....	1,227	Navigation of the ocean,.....	75
Agriculture,.....	97,781	" " rivers and lakes,...	285
Commerce,.....	2,523	Learned professions,.....	1,931
Manufactures and trades,.....	12,486		

DEAF AND DUMB, ETC.

Deaf and Dumb,.....	146	Blind,.....	80	Insane, and Idiots,.....	900
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COLLEGES, ETC.

Colleges,.....	Number, 7.....	Students, 311
Academies,.....	" 41.....	" 1,907
Common Schools,.....	" 1,900.....	" 33,724
At public charge,.....	" 1,318
Number of white persons over 20, who cannot read and write,.....		28,780

MERCHANTS' TEMPERANCE SOCIETY.

It is with great pleasure that we record on the pages of this magazine the establishment of a merchants' temperance society in the "commercial emporium." We ardently hope the example may be followed in every city of the Union, believing as we do, that temperance is one of the corner-stones of commercial success.

The first meeting of the society took place at Clinton Hall, that monument of mercantile liberality, on Wednesday evening, 1st September. At this meeting the following constitution was unanimously adopted:—

CONSTITUTION.

1. This society shall be called "The Merchants' Temperance Society of the City of New York."

2. The objects of this society shall be to promote the cause of temperance, by entirely abstaining from the traffic and use, as a beverage, of all intoxicating liquors; and, by persuasion, as well as by example, to influence the great community of merchants in the United States, and in foreign countries, to adopt the same principle.

3. Any merchant of the city of New York, subscribing the following declaration, may become a member of this society:—

"Declaration.—I approve of the objects of the Merchants' Temperance Society of the City of New York, as set forth in the second article of the constitution of said society, and pledge my efforts and personal example to the promotion of those objects."

4. The officers of this society shall be a president, five vice presidents, a corresponding and a recording secretary, and a treasurer; who, together with ten managers, shall constitute a board, whose duty it shall be to conduct the operations of the society.

5. The officers and board of management shall hereafter be elected at the annual meeting of the society, which shall be held in the month of December, each year.

THE "BOOK TRADE."

We have been compelled to crowd out a large number of notices of new works, in consequence of the great length of the three first articles in the present number. Our friends of the "book trade" shall be attended to in our next, at the expense of an additional sheet, if necessary.

THE BANKRUPT LAW.

In order to furnish our readers with an authentic copy of this important document, for reference, we applied to Mr. Webster, the Secretary of State, for a revised copy, and we have great pleasure in acknowledging the courtesy and promptness of that gentleman in complying with our request.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1841.

ART. I.—VENETIAN COMMERCE.

THE history of modern nations presents in the strongest light, and illustrates with irresistible force the truth of the proposition, that their commerce, and the political liberty they enjoy, have started into being, and hand in hand marched progressively onward; the one never declining without dragging the other along its downward course. Nor would it be difficult to explain why this mutual dependence exists, even were the reasons for it less perceptible than ages of experience have made them. Commercial employments, and the wealth and luxuries they bring, form the great lever by which those engaged in them are raised to the same broad platform before occupied exclusively by their superiors, who, having once enjoyed the rich fruits of mercantile enterprise, and the choice products of foreign climes, form new tastes, and indulge in pleasures before unknown, to which habit so strongly binds them, that they soon become dependent upon the class of men through whom these enjoyments are furnished, until, the scales of society gradually changing, the latter find themselves occupying a higher elevation than they had ever hoped to attain. As commerce opens path after path along which fortune leads those engaged in it, sometimes plunging them into bankruptcy, at others elevating them to wealth, and perchance to influence and power, the great mass of mankind, before bound down to poverty, compelled to toil hopelessly on, wearing out their lives on the broad estates of their titled masters, deriving from severe labor barely enough to furnish a meager subsistence, with no cheering promise that a happier future would in this world ever dawn upon them, without one single avenue by which they could escape from the mean and lowly stations in which birth and circumstances had bound them;—this part of the human race, comprising a vast proportion, are no longer confined to the degrading position occupied by their ancestors. Means are unfolded by which the humblest,—and who does not know that these are and ever have been the most eminent as merchants,—may rise to opulence and distinction, may acquire honor, and share the intercourse

and friendship of the noblest among their fellow-men. An immeasurable, a brilliant commercial field is before them, spreading over the wide seas and the broad rich plains of the whole world. Grasping the advantages thus held out, thousands from the lowest ranks have climbed to high and enviable stations, from which, but for the prosecution of commercial enterprises, they would have been forever excluded; while the great mass from whence they sprang, who had previously regarded the positions of those above them as unattainable, and their own menial condition as the irrevocable, unalterable decree of fate, soon become, in the estimation of themselves, immeasurably exalted, while their reverence and respect for rank and fortune proportionably diminish, as the possibility of attaining them becomes apparent. In this manner they learn their own strength, and by exerting it are enabled to exercise a powerful influence, as well in divesting rank of many of its most dangerous prerogatives, as in framing laws for promoting the political and social advantages of the great body of their race.

As that portion of men engaged in commercial pursuits become more numerous, and by the introduction of foreign commodities swell the wealth and add to the prosperity of their nation, they have in all modern times rapidly advanced to importance; for not only, as we have before remarked, do the wealthy and noble find the luxuries thus introduced indispensable to their comfort and enjoyment, but the revenue of the country is enlarged as its trade increases, until all classes are penetrated with the necessity of using every exertion for its continuance and improvement. Legislation thus falls into the hands of those anxious to raise up a vast and countervailing influence to resist that wielded by the landholders, the result of which is, that men from the middle and lower ranks of life, by whom the commerce of every nation is mainly carried on, soon acquire sufficient influence to send individuals from their own body to represent them in the council halls of their country, where meeting the rich and nobly born as peers, they learn to view them only as equals,—as men, who in all else save the fate of birth, are on the same broad level with themselves; and regarding them in this light, our new class of legislators make every effort to wrest from them their artificial distinctions, and to bury them forever beneath the broad and permanent fabric of social and political equality.

That the commerce of all enlightened nations of the present age has produced, and is now producing, in the social and political condition of their people, the important changes to which we have here briefly alluded, no one who bestows even a cursory glance upon their history will deny; and though the same fact may not be so strikingly illustrated by an examination of the chronicles of ancient kingdoms, yet we shall find that the political blessings and true freedom of their inhabitants were greatly enhanced by the magnitude and grandeur of their commerce, and maritime advantages. Venice was one of these, and although her people certainly understood but dimly the nature of that civil and political liberty, so well defined and appreciated in our own brilliant age, yet did they enjoy both to a degree unknown in most of the neighboring countries that slumbered during the heavy darkness of the period that marked her sway. And this was strange, nay, almost wonderful, for Venice was born and nursed in Italy's gloomiest age, when the Roman empire was suffering her most terrible reverses, and while all Europe was clad in barbarism. She grew

and flourished mid the wild and destructive elements of Gothic warfare, and still increased, while the most splendid cities in Italy were ravaged and burnt by the savage warriors that humbled and sacked imperial Rome. The barriers of nature walled out the foes that swarmed the shores of the Adriatic, while her isolated position hid the growing wealth that early glittered to invite the rapacious invader. To her secluded, and almost unknown position, she owed her preservation, and when her gorgeous riches were revealed to neighboring nations, the power she wielded was mighty enough to guard and protect them from every hostile aggression.

The birth of Venice was as ill-omened and un auspicious of future greatness, as in the prime of her years she was prominent and powerful. It was about the middle of the fifth century that Attila, the scourge of Rome, thundered along the fair plains of northern Italy. As he passed onward at the head of his fierce Goths, noble cities, which the morning sun had gilded in light, smoked, at its going down, a heap of ruins. Death and desolation alone were left behind, and as the barbarian host neared the great heart of the world, their natures seemed to grow more savage, and their swords more keen and bloodthirsty. Neither age nor sex were spared, and neither brave men nor stout walls could stay the course of northern Europe's terrible soldiery. The inhabitants of cities yet unsacked, trembling for their lives, left their homes and fled to the north-western shore of the Adriatic Gulf, and it is to these wretched fugitives that Venice owes her once unrivalled splendor and her glorious name. There, upon the small islands scattered along the mouths of the numerous rivers that discharge themselves into this gulf, did these wanderers rear their rude habitations, destined ere long to disappear, and be replaced by gorgeous palaces and magnificent temples.

Upon the whole continent of Europe, hardly a spot could have been found less likely to attract an enemy, whether in search of glory, or what in those times more frequently invited conquest, empire and wealth; for though the islands they had chosen were numerous, yet were they barren, and with few exceptions uninhabited. From agriculture, the most meager subsistence even for a few could not have been derived; and nature, which in Italy on every feature wore an aspect that promised and gave all the enjoyments which the most delicious of climes and the richest soil, with its varied and luxuriant products could bestow, frowned threateningly upon the exiles in their new home: and had prophecy,—linked with all the mysterious agencies and strange accidents which those who pretend to scan futurity and read the ways of its coming call to their aid, to render more sublimely solemn and seemingly true the predictions they utter,—foretold the greatness that should one day grow up on those little isles, and rise until the whole Christian world should contemplate its magnitude and feel its power; had it foretold that from the little band of refugees gathered together on those drear spots, so small and sea-girt that the waves almost embraced each other as they travelled along their surface, there would, in the lapse of time, spring up a nation so mighty, that kingdoms should be awed and shaken by its strength, and that Rome herself should receive from it the aid to hurl one pontiff from his seat, and with a rival claimant fill anew the papal throne; had it been foretold that from the clustering huts of its childhood should arise the Venice of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, the storehouse, the commercial heart, the great and almost sole factor of southern and western Europe, the queen of the

Adriatic, clad in gold and jewels like the fabled hero of some fairy tale ;— had this prophecy been uttered, how many would have deemed it less likely of fulfilment, than the wildest fancy of a disturbed dream !

If the spot to which these outcasts fled possessed so few advantages calculated to awaken desires of conquest in the minds of warriors who would otherwise have directed their arms against it, the obstacles to be overcome in reaching it, and the natural barriers with which it was surrounded, afforded the most powerful means of defending it against the attacks of an invading foe. The islands we have mentioned were protected against the waves and the open sea by long slips of land, formed by the deposit of innumerable rivers, while communication with the shore was rendered extremely difficult by a vast bed of soft mud, extending a number of miles from the land, covered with water to the depth of not more than two or three feet, and navigable for light skiffs only ; except along the narrow beds of the rivers that traversed this *lagune*, where the water was much deeper : and these estuaries which led to the open sea, whether entered from the outer barrier or from the shore, were as difficult to find as to pursue, and to a pilot not perfectly acquainted with their deviating course, their navigation was extremely dangerous. Through these narrow time-deepened channels, that wound secretly along among the little spots thickly grouped above the surface of the sea, did the exiles pioneer their way, and amid the intricate places where the mariner's bark had seldom before ventured, necessity taught them a safe and rapid navigation.

And this stern, all-powerful master, to whose creative hand every age is indebted for the development of some brilliant genius, the fuller ripening of some noble intellect, the germs of new nations and of new laws, and the beginning and end of vast revolutions among men ; to which individuals owe their darkest vices and most terrible crimes, and without which, their noblest virtues and rarest talents would remain hidden from themselves, and to the world unknown ;—this fashioner of mankind, and sculptor of men's fortunes, had fastened its iron grasp upon the Venetian wanderers ; had chained them to their barren new-found home, and taught them to look upon it as the sole world of their ambition, the boundary of their hopes, the limit of their greatness, the source of their subsistence, and the only patrimony they could bequeath their children. Thus regarding it, and with no alternative save the fate they had so recently escaped, they settled upon the islands that clustered nearest to each other, and there engaged in the only employments their situation afforded, consisting of the manufacture of salt and fishing.

Years rolled on, and with scanty returns following these laborious avocations, the colonists advanced slowly upward, overcoming a thousand obstacles, and increasing gradually in wealth and importance. Fresh continental outrages swelled their numbers, by driving from their native land new exiles, who on the bosom of the Adriatic found that security and quiet of which Italy was deprived ; and for this they were willing to endure the privations that frowned upon them in their adopted home. New islands were in this manner peopled, and upon them arose new habitations, until the few dwellings, from whence had ascended the smoke of the earliest settlers, spread into the wide and permanent foundation of a great city, and the handful of refugees who had originally sought an asylum there, gave birth to a new European nation.

The interests of this colony, during the first stages of its existence,

were neither multifarious nor important, and for their management and preservation few laws were necessary. From the earliest periods of society, however, legislation, either patriarchial or otherwise, has been found indispensable to the happiness and well-being of every community; and the source from whence that of the isles proceeded, furnishes strong testimony of its impartiality and purity. Their form of government was in that age a perfect anomaly, and in our own would be considered one of the most extreme simplicity and republicanism. For extraordinary purposes, a general assembly was called, where a majority of the people passed upon the measures proposed for their consideration, while each island of any note chose a tribune or judicial magistrate, whose duty it was to administer, expound, and sometimes declare the law, being responsible to the general assembly for the faithful discharge of his trust.

Such was the simple machinery by which these islands,—inhabited by men born and educated in different communities, and thus strangely thrown together,—were politically linked to each other, and notwithstanding their varied and conflicting prejudices, engendered by birth, and fostered by the nurture and associations of that dark period, the interests, like the fate of the colonists, were soon harmoniously blended. Circumstances unforeseen and too powerful to be resisted, had forced them together for mutual protection;—necessity compelled them to regard each other as friends,—to unite their scattered strength for the safety of all, and to strive zealously and with a single mind for the common weal. They had made their homes on the wide sea, and reared their dwellings from its bosom,—they had found security and peace, were beyond the reach of tyranny, feared not the sword or the axe of military murderers, were contented with their condition, and before many generations were prospered beyond all parallel. Their numbers were continually enlarging, for the mild laws and tolerant government they enjoyed, so different from the political slavery and despotic institutions that prevailed upon the continent, strongly invited the oppressed and discontented to take refuge within their jurisdiction. As the inhabitants increased, the employments their predecessors had engaged in, would no longer support them. New channels of industry must be sought out, and a more prolific source of subsistence discovered. And here again necessity carved the way, and with one hand pointing to starvation and want, with the other guided them on to a golden future.

Commerce, with her thousand treasures since unlocked, then slumbered from one end of Europe to the other. Her rich stores of wealth lay hidden and unexplored, and judging from the education and habits of men, centuries would probably elapse, ere commercial pursuits would be generally engaged in. Indeed, at that time, nothing appeared more improbable. The grand trade in which mankind were employed, was in wielding the sword against their fellows, and nations, while they regarded each other as natural enemies, seldom wanted a pretext for open warfare. Blood flowed freely on all sides, and the strong man overcame and plundered the weak. To have found permanent security in any kingdom either for person or property would have been impossible, for the power that guarded them to-day, might, by the strong arm of some foreign or domestic foe, be swept away and levelled with the dust to-morrow. Great risk was incurred in the transportation of merchandise from one country to another, it being exposed to seizure upon the land

by hordes of robbers, and upon the sea by pirates; while the intercourse between different nations was so defectively regulated by treaty, and so little governed by the modern principles of international law, that the rights of foreigners were seldom protected; and instead of being allowed the secure enjoyment of their property, it was frequently wrested from them, without the hope or prospect of remuneration. It is not surprising, then, that few in that age ventured to embark in traffic, nor could it be expected that many would have hazarded their fortunes upon the chances of a pursuit so uncertain. To prudent men, it seemed a dangerous method of attempting to better their fortunes, while to the timid, it presented obstacles almost insurmountable. Our refugees of the Adriatic knew the fate to which commercial enterprises were exposed, and could but poorly appreciate the immense advantages to be derived from them. Something must be undertaken, however, to support the population that daily pressed more strongly upon the means of subsistence, and to open a trade with the countries around, and become the carriers of neighboring nations, was a project that, impracticable as it appeared, was the only one of any description within their reach. And this they adopted, and slowly commenced their commercial career. Ships were built,—rough, rude, and ill-shaped, as were most ancient craft, but no less able to bear their burdens and plough the wave; and these, awkwardly equipped, and manned by those to whom the roaring of the sea had been familiar music all their lives, were sent to neighboring ports and distant cities, with goodly freights, to be exchanged for products intended for the marts of other nations. And thus in time, and for those days and that warlike age, speedily too, did the commerce of these islands increase. Many a voyage, long and hazardous, full of risk and danger, was undertaken, and upon nearly all of these, old Neptune and Fortune jointly smiled. It was at first strange to see noble ships, heavily and richly laden, bounding onward to those once desolate isles, and stranger still to see their inhabitants, so recently the poor and hunted refugees, unloading from these ships, and piling upon their shores the costly merchandise of far-off climes. But it soon became no uncommon sight, and the novelty had scarce passed away ere Venice arose glittering in her newly acquired wealth, and assumed a proud station among the cities of the earth. Surrounding nations could not but perceive the new rival that had appeared to dispute the palm of maritime greatness,—they saw the elevation to which she aspired, and marked the strides with which she was hastening towards it. The vast wealth she possessed, would soon have marked her for their prey, but when the prize promised the cost of seizure, it was too well guarded to be captured by an enemy of ordinary strength. Her natural position, too, so inaccessible, and girt about with difficulties, was strengthened by artificial barriers and military defences; and instead of leaving each island isolated and exposed to the separate attacks of an invading foe, sixty of them, which clustered about Rialto, the principal one in the group, were connected with that and each other by convenient well-constructed bridges.

As Venice advanced thus rapidly in the scale of wealth and strength and commercial importance, her citizens lost none of that vigor, industry, and enterprise, which had formed the sole elements of their prosperity. Their ambition seemed to increase with their numbers, and every accession to the commerce and wealth of their city, served but to sharpen

their minds for new maritime undertakings. Their entire thoughts were devoted to schemes of traffic, and their souls absorbed in the contemplation of anticipated gains. To increase the riches and add to the distinction of their city, all the energies they possessed were employed ; and a circumstance of no little importance in the history of Venice, shows for how much of her wealth and grandeur she was indebted to the religious enthusiasm and popish superstition, that prevailed throughout Europe during the dark ages.

In the early part of the ninth century, while some ten or twelve Venetian ships were lying in the harbor of Alexandria unlading and receiving cargoes, a plan was formed for carrying off the body of Saint Mark, whose remains were said to repose in a church of that city, the walls of which, being composed of rare and elegant marble, the inhabitants were tearing down, and with their rich materials, were erecting a costly and spacious palace. To these holy relics, so pursueth the historian, the populace were devotedly attached, as well by reason of the mysterious veneration usually inspired in superstitious minds, by the contemplation of remains of such supposed sacredness, as by the performance of sundry miracles, gravely alleged to have been effected by their superhuman virtue and ghostly influence. To the scandal of those robed in the holy orders of that early period, we are sorry to write,—though a regard for truth, and for the words of our chronicler compels us,—that the priests appointed to guard and watch over these precious relics, seem to have entertained a lower estimate of their value, than men of such professed godliness should have done ; for so dazzled were they by a liberal offer in gold, made to them by the captains of these vessels, that they sold the defunct saint, which was conveyed on board one of them by the following stratagem. These traitorous priests, being the only persons allowed to approach the body, cut a huge slit in the cerements in which it lay, and having abstracted it therefrom, a female saint was deposited in its stead : though this substitution, as we are gravely told, came near being discovered, for no sooner were the sacred robes of Saint Mark disturbed, than a perfume of such surpassing richness proceeded from them, that crowds assembled to inhale its rare sweetness ; who becoming somewhat clamorous about the safety of their favorite saint, and entertaining suspicions that all was not right, could only be appeased by an examination of the substituted relics, which, appearing like the real ones,—for the slit in the cerecloth had been perpetrated behind,—they retired satisfied ; while the saint, which had in the mean time been placed in a basket and covered with large joints of pork, was conveyed on board the vessel by porters, who kept the populace at a distance by lustily crying that abomination of all good mussulmen for sale.

Possessed of so rich a freight, the fleet, after undergoing a strict search for contraband goods, sailed for Venice, and on the voyage were overtaken by a storm so terrible, that but for the timely appearance of the saint, who solemnly stalked the deck, and commanded the captain to furl his sails, all would have been lost. They at length arrived at their destined port, when the joy of the Venetians in the acquisition of so renowned a saint was unbounded. Their city was solemnly consigned to its protection, the saint or his lion was wrought and emblazoned upon her standards, and impressed upon her coinage, and the war-cry of her citizens ever after has been *Viva San Marco!* In honor of this saint, a

fair was afterward instituted, and this, combining commercial pursuits with religious devotions, brought vast numbers to Venice, whose immense expenditures, added to the traffic they engaged in, greatly enriched the Venetians, who perceiving the benefit to be derived from canonized remains, purchased them at extravagant prices; and when this could not be done, they were not unfrequently stolen. The rage for these at length became so ungovernable, that fierce and bloody conflicts sometimes ensued between rival claimants; one of which was fought between a Venetian and Pisan armament, the cause of the quarrel being, that the former had refused to share with the latter, one half the body of a saint, which had been pilfered from a neighboring island by their joint exertions. In this engagement, the Pisans suffered terribly, losing besides the holy relics they coveted, some twenty galleys, and about five thousand prisoners.

Rendering the religious enthusiasm of that dark period subservient to their insatiable thirst for wealth and commercial pursuits, the Venetians were continually extending their maritime enterprises, swelling the amount of their shipping, strengthening their naval armament, and daily weighing heavier in the scale of nations. Venice had already, in the tenth century, taken a high stand among the kingdoms of the earth. She was the emporium of Italy and Greece; and while Pisa, Genoa, and Amalfi, which in time arose to be her principal rivals, were scarcely known, she had become the exclusive factor between Europe and the Levant. By the establishment of treaties, she had acquired jurisdiction over many of the neighboring ports, while by negotiations and alliances with the Greek emperor and the sultans of Egypt and Turkey, extensive and valuable privileges and exemptions had been secured to her numerous merchants trading to those countries.

Down to a period so late as the very last of the tenth century, Venice, content with the absolute sovereignty of her hundred isles, had entirely abstained from all attempts at foreign conquest. To all her citizens, ample employment had been afforded in carrying on commercial enterprises of unrivalled magnitude, and being entirely engrossed in those pursuits, so congenial to their tastes and inclinations, and so immensely profitable withal, they had escaped the influence of that warlike spirit, which raged to so fearful an extent upon the continent of Europe. It was to the peaceful relations which they had succeeded in cultivating and maintaining with neighboring and distant ports, that they in a great measure owed their wealth and elevation; and to preserve these unimpaired from the destructive influence of warfare, formed a marked feature in their foreign policy; so much so indeed, that for a long time, they had consented to pay a large sum of money annually to the pirates of Narenta, to purchase an exemption from the plunders of that fierce people. But the attitude of Venice, which had so long been of the most neutral and peaceable character, was about to undergo a vast change. Her citizens were gorged with wealth, and loaded with the costly luxuries of all climes. Their individual riches would have purchased principalities, and the gold which their fathers had toiled through many generations to amass, had, as in time, and in all nations it ever will, reared a proud aristocracy, whose ambitious minds sought to grasp a territory, commensurate with the fast growing strength of the wave-washed republic. That spirit of the simplest democracy, which had of necessity prevailed among the Venetians during their earlier history,—which had bound them together as one great family—that desire

of mutual preservation, which had caused them to forget all distinction of rank and wealth and country, which had compelled them all to engage in the same humble employments, and had introduced, as far as such a thing is practicable, a pure and harmonious equality throughout their narrow borders, were rapidly disappearing, or had ceased to be altogether. Many families, claiming to be noble, had sprung up, and forgetful that their ancestors had been fishermen and mariners and makers of salt, regarded the middle and lower orders with contempt, and already assumed and wielded some portion of that power, which in the hands of an aristocracy is ever dangerous and threatening to the liberties of any people.

If ambition to extend their territory prevailed among the higher orders, the middle and lower classes required little urging to embrace a scheme which promised to add so immensely to the numerous commercial advantages they had already acquired. There were many among them, too, as there ever is in populous cities, of discontented minds and desperate fortunes,—such men as in peaceful times are useless—nay, a positive curse to the community in which they live, but who in times of strife and danger, fight with a brave heart and a stout arm;—less for their country, it is true, than for gold and their own individual advantage. By these, a military expedition against any nation or people, was sure to be hailed as the road to honor and fortune, and every warlike demonstration by the government, met with their unqualified approbation.

It was under the influence of this state of public feeling, that Venice enrolled her warriors for the first expedition ever undertaken by her for foreign conquest:—and this was near the expiration of the tenth century, after more than four hundred years of peace with all nations;—a length of time, we venture to say, that no other people on earth ever succeeded in maintaining uninterrupted neutrality.

And even this expedition, the Venetians declared, was not intended for the acquisition of foreign territory, but to chastise the Narentine pirates, whose depredations upon their commerce had at length become intolerable. This formed the pretence for fitting it out, but the result showed that to humble these sea-robbers was a part only of the objects to be achieved. The fleet sailed from Venice in the spring of 997. For those early days it was a powerful armament, and was commanded by the doge in person. The progress of this naval force was a succession of triumphs, many of which were accomplished without striking a blow. Numerous islands, some of considerable magnitude, were captured, while every town along a wide-stretching coast was reduced to subjection. The Dalmatian towns, which the fierce Narentines had long pillaged without mercy, hailed the approach of the Venetian fleet with acclamations of joy, and proffered oaths of fealty and subjection to the doge, as their deliverer and sovereign; and it was not until the fleet anchored off the islands of Konzola and Lesina, the outworks of the Bay of Narenta, that any resistance was encountered. The latter of these, in particular, was defended with the most desperate bravery. It was naturally a place of great strength, and was strongly fortified and garrisoned. But the skill and courage of the Venetians overcame every obstacle, and both these important strongholds were at length compelled to yield. The Bay of Narenta was now open to the victorious fleet, which sailed in and desolated the surrounding country with fire and the sword.

The conquest of these territories once effected, their permanent subjection

to the government of Venice was not for one moment lost sight of. Their importance in a commercial point of view was of great magnitude, while the influence of the republic would be much increased by this broad addition to its former limited domain. The government of the conquered towns was accordingly administered by a *podesta*, appointed to preside over each, and these officers were chosen from the principal families in Venice, and ruled in its name, while the native inhabitants were entirely excluded from all participation in public affairs.

The brilliant successes that attended this expedition, not only surprised the Venetians themselves, but excited the astonishment of other nations. To them she appeared a new-born giant, leaping from the cradle to strength and empire ; for though her citizens had long been famed for their wealth, and the extent of their shipping, yet they had never been deemed skilled in warfare, or men to be feared in battle. This first achievement then, so bold in its conception, and so rapid and effectual in its execution, performed too by a people unknown in arms, was regarded with much the same wonder as would have been lavished upon the exploits of some mailed champion of superhuman prowess, who in the golden days of chivalry should have suddenly and mysteriously appeared, to challenge and unhorse all knights who dared to appear in the field against him. The importance of the little republic was vastly increased by this indication of strength, and the pride of its citizens was elevated in proportion. Like the citizens of imperial Rome in her palmyest days, those of Venice boasted of the might of their sea-girt home, which even in distant lands often served as a shield to protect them from injuries and oppressions.

Wide-spread and numerous as were the commercial advantages of the Venetians, they were yet too few and narrow to gratify the spirit of this wonderful people for maritime adventure. Towards the end of the tenth century, a new and far-stretching field was opened to them, by a series of skilful negotiations with Comnenus, the Greek emperor. This monarch not only renounced in favor of Venice the pretensions to nominal sovereignty which he had previously asserted over Dalmatia, but granted to her shipping free entrance into all his ports, naturalized her residents at Constantinople, and compelled the merchants of Amalfi to pay a heavy annual tribute to the cathedral of St. Mark. The vast opportunities thus presenting for engrossing the commerce of the east, were monopolized by the Venetians at every point. The prerogatives her negotiations had secured, over those possessed by any other maritime power, gave to her merchants the most important advantages, and enabled them in all their commercial undertakings to grasp facilities which were in many instances denied to those of other nations.

The enjoyment of this eastern trade was a source of immense profit to the Venetians, and soon rendered them anxious to extend it beyond even the broad limits which had been granted them by the Greek emperor. To attempt this by negotiation with the warlike nations inhabiting the countries of the east, was, at the period we have mentioned, utterly impracticable ; to secure further privileges by force, alone and unaided, was apparently impossible. The only mode then by which this could be effected, was to join the crusading host, which, composed of the most splendid chivalry on earth, was then marching and glittering along the plains of southern Europe, ready to burst, with the fury of ten thousand thunderbolts, upon the turbaned infidels of Palestine. Let it not be supposed that a de-

sire to redeem the land of the cross from the tramp of unbelievers, prompted Venice to engage in the holy war which drenched the cities of the east in Christian and Saracen blood, and deprived Europe of thousands of her bravest knights. The religious fanaticism which prevailed at this time throughout the vast limits of the papal world, was here met and overcome by the stronger passion of gain, which rendered all things subservient to its influence. Unless, then, wealth or dominion were to be acquired, mid the grand conflict into which the whole world seemed rushing, the politic Venetians would have been careful to keep aloof from its raging ; but when both were promised, they no longer hesitated to enter upon the holy quarrel, that, under pretence of crushing the infidel power in Palestine, they could enlarge their territories, and swell the bounds of their oriental commerce. But one obstacle to prevent this existed. The Greek emperor was highly incensed that the crusaders should make his territories the highway to Asia ; and Venice was bound to support the views of this monarch by the strongest ties of self-interest. This consideration prevented her for a period of two years from furnishing an armament to support the Christian host in the east, and caused her to waver between the desire to preserve unimpaired the commercial privileges she had already acquired, and the ambition to seize upon new territories. The latter at length prevailed, and the rich land of holy Syria, with its varied elements from which to form a vast oriental commerce, was the prize for which Venice armed her fleets, and sent forth her armies.

Two hundred vessels were fitted out, well armed and provisioned, and these, officered by able men, sailed for the Holy Land. This naval armament, if we remember the early period at which it was furnished, may well be deemed one of immense magnitude. It attracted the attention of the whole Christian world, and was regarded as one of the most important resources possessed by the crusaders. It may very properly be considered too, as no inaccurate indication of what the commercial navy of Venice was at that period, for the vessels of war she possessed were originally constructed to protect the shipping of her citizens from the depredations of piratical and other cruisers, and were probably by no means too numerous to effect this object. Nor is it by any means likely that the ever politic and cautious Venetians would part with so many of their armed ships, as to leave their commerce wholly unprotected ; and this again shows how vast their navy must have been, when so many as two hundred vessels could be detached from it, and sent upon a distant foreign service.

The services performed by this armament during the first campaign were of very little importance ; and the second one passed away without shedding much glory upon the Venetian arms. During the third, however, they accomplished a number of brilliant achievements, and evinced the most distinguished prowess in the assault and capture of the strongly defended towns of Sidon, Berythus, and Acre. The crusaders, victorious at every point, advanced into the Holy Land, and their brave and chivalrous commander Baldwin, then more envied than the most powerful crowned head in Europe, distributed among his allies the conquests he made with a liberal hand. In this parcelling out of territory and bestowment of privileges, Venice was not forgotten. One fourth part of the city of Acre was assigned to her, a free commerce throughout the new kingdom of Jerusalem, and within its limits an absolute exemption from all jurisdiction, save that of her own magistrates. And yet she was dissatisfied, and regarded

with ill-concealed jealousy and discontent, the territories that were given to other members of the Christian host.

Twenty years, succeeding this campaign rolled on, and the Venetians, who during that period had been actively engaged in a wide-spread and lucrative commerce, were again called upon to arm and aid the Christian cause in Palestine. The infidels were then victorious, the second Baldwin had met with the most terrible reverses, a thousand fierce assaults had thinned the shining ranks of his mailed warriors, the swords of the Saracen host gleamed before the battlements of Jerusalem, and all Christendom trembled for the fate of the Holy City. Upon Venice, possessing a navy the most powerful and efficient of any kingdom on earth, and which was then indispensably necessary if the Saracens were to be met on any thing like equal terms, the eyes of all Europe were directed; and she was supplicated to save the knights of Baldwin from total destruction, and the Christian cause in the east from utter annihilation and defeat, by again embarking her goodly battle-ships for the Holy Land. The same feeling of self-interest, the same desire for conquest which had before prevailed, again entered the council chamber of the Venetians, and, shrouded in the guise of Christianity, another mighty armament was fitted out, consisting of more than two hundred vessels, some of which were banked with a hundred oars, each requiring two men. This mighty force sailed upon its consecrated mission, and entering the Bay of Jaffa, then filled with an immense Saracen fleet, bore down upon it in order of battle. The conflict that ensued was terrible and bloody, and historians relate that for two or three miles around, the sea was crimsoned with gore. The Saracens were defeated with dreadful loss, and the victory thus acquired by the Venetians, placed their influence paramount in the councils of the crusaders. The doge proceeded at once to Jerusalem, where he succeeded in obtaining, in addition to the extensive privileges already possessed by his country, an entire street in each city in the kingdom of Jerusalem, together with a bath, bakehouse, market, and church; and besides this, all the imports of Venice were to pass free of duty, no taxes were to be paid by her citizens, and a trial before their own magistrates was solemnly secured to them.

The grand object of the republic,—the extension and security of her commerce, the safety and prosperity of her citizens engaged in it, and a desire to render them independent of the laws and judicial tribunals of the foreign lands into which the spirit of enterprise and adventure led their steps,—was here secured upon what seemed to be an enduring basis; and while the great mass of the crusading host thought only of accomplishing their spiritual mission of driving the infidels from the holy places they had so long desecrated, the Venetians never for one moment forgot their temporal welfare, but were continually grasping those civil and commercial advantages, which placed their glittering city of the isles upon the very pinnacle of earthly grandeur. Their energy, their bravery, and more than all, the untiring perseverance they possessed, had accomplished results of the most important and brilliant character, had made them the wonder and admiration of the world, the fear and envy of surrounding nations. As champions of the cross, none were reputed more valiant; and resolved to maintain a reputation which brought with it wealth, territory, and national strength and grandeur, they thirsted for new conquests, and eagerly embraced a proposition to assist the crusaders in the reduction of

Ascalon and Tyre ; one third of each with their dependencies being promised to the Venetians in case of success.

Roused into full action by this golden offer, Venice again manned, armed, and sent forth a powerful fleet, and an imposing farce was enacted to learn upon which city the God of battles willed their avenging arms first to fall. Two scrolls, upon one of which was written Ascalon, and upon the other Tyre, were deposited in an urn, and this was solemnly placed upon the altar. Mass was then celebrated ; after which an orphan, chosen for the purpose, drew forth one of the fatal scrolls, containing the name of Tyre. Towards this ancient and doomed city, which had been captured by Alexander fourteen hundred years before, the Christian host advanced, and encircling its vast walls by land and sea, the siege commenced. The defence was long, desperate, and bloody, but Tyre at length fell, and Ascalon, a place of much less strength, soon afterward surrendered to the Christian force.

The immense possessions embraced within the dominions of the republic, and the vast amount of foreign territory over which she was continually extending her authority, at last awakened the jealousy and fear of the Greek emperor. So powerful a neighbor on the European frontier was dangerous to his own sovereignty, and he dared to provoke the ire of Venice, by committing the first act of unprovoked aggression upon her citizens. This was immediately and terribly revenged. The doge with a mighty fleet swept the whole imperial coast. The entire Archipelago was visited, and many of its islands captured. The shores of the Morea experienced his vengeance, and the rebellious towns of Dalmatia were chastised.

Defeated at every point, and overwhelmed with losses on all sides, the emperor deemed himself fortunate in securing a peace with his powerful adversary on any terms ; and the Venetians, relieved from the prosecution of foreign warfare, again resumed those commercial employments from which had sprung their pre-eminent wealth and strength. The maritime field which their enterprise and bravery had opened was almost boundless. Spreading far away into the eastern world, it placed within their reach the rarest products of oriental climes ; and these, while they ministered to the cupidity of the merchant, and by their ready sale at an immense profit, repaid him a hundred fold for the gold expended and the risk incurred in their purchase, gratified the gorgeous tastes and luxurious habits of that half barbarous, yet glittering age. The ports of all nations gladly welcomed the deep-freighted ships of Venice to their waters, and the rich cargoes of rarest foreign manufacture they brought, were eagerly sought after by the inhabitants of every land. The City of the Isles was literally filled with magnificence and gold. Her streets were crowded with palaces, and blazing domes rose loftily up on every side. With every sun the treasury of the state increased, its citizens multiplied, its power enlarged. Peace liberally strewed its blessings, and bestowed its gifts with a lavish hand. But war again came,—another holy war of a most novel and unseemly character,—a strife between two holy prelates, each claiming St. Peter's keys and the papal chair, in which the republic engaged, and gained more glory than had descended upon it in all its previous battles.

In the middle of the twelfth century, to the great scandal of the Catholic church, a double election called two successors to infallibility and the chair

of St. Peter. These holy rivals thundered their respective claims throughout Christendom ; but while Alexander the Third derived his title from the almost unanimous voice of the whole sacred electoral college, Victor the Fourth, with scarce the shadow of legitimate right, clutched the sacred seat by force, backed and supported by the vast power of Frederick Barbarossa the emperor. Alexander, after suffering personal outrage and imprisonment, at length escaped from the imperial city, and when years of wandering and bitter exile had passed, he landed obscure and alone in the streets of Venice, and threw himself upon the generosity of the doge. He was joyfully received, and though demanded as a fugitive by the emperor, the Venetians braved his threatened vengeance and refused to deliver up their distinguished guest. Preparations for war were immediately commenced, and Alexander, after buckling on the sword of the doge with his own hand, and bestowing upon him the pontifical blessing, saw the Venetian armament depart to fight his cause against a hostile force of twice its size and strength. The two fleets met off the Istrian coast, and after a terrific conflict of more than six hours duration, the Venetians were victorious, and forty-eight galleys, with Otho the emperor's son who commanded them, fell into their hands. The doge returned in triumph, and at Lido was met by Alexander in person, when a solemn ceremony was performed, which continued to be celebrated during the existence of the republic.

The holy father, as soon as the doge touched the land, presented him with a ring of gold, and said, "Take this ring, and with it take on my authority the sea as your subject. Every year on the return of this happy day, you and your successors shall make known to all posterity, that the right of conquest has subjugated the Adriatic to Venice, as a spouse to her husband."

The pride with which the Venetians cherished the papal grant bestowed by these figurative nuptials, is most forcibly exhibited by their celebration for the long period of more than six hundred years upon every fresh return of the feast of Ascension ; and that this celebration must have been both splendid and imposing, let the language of the historian testify. "The doge and his clarissimi," saith he, "having heard mass in the church of San Nicolo, embarked on board the gorgeous Bucentaur, a state galley, blazing with gold, enriched with costly ornaments, and preserving such fanciful identity with the original fabric, as could be obtained by perpetual repair without total reconstruction. Gliding through the canals amid festive shouts and triumphal music, this superb pageant arrived at the shore of Lido, near the mouth of the harbor, and there the princely bridegroom, dropping a golden ring into the bosom of his betrothed, espoused her with this brief but significant greeting, "We wed thee with this ring in token of our true and perpetual sovereignty."

The destruction of the emperor's fleet was soon followed by the defeat and total rout of his entire army, and humbled on all sides, he sued for peace. Negotiations were opened with Alexander, and the emperor, humiliated in the dust, and loaded with the dreaded curse of excommunication, sought an interview with him in Venice. There, in the magnificent cathedral of St. Mark, they met : Alexander, with the triple crown blazing upon his brow, clothed in the vestments of his holy office, surrounded by a glittering throng of cardinals, prelates, and ambassadors, encircled by all the imposing grandeur of ecclesiastical pomp ; the emperor, with uncovered

head, and purple mantle cast aside, prostrate, and creeping onward to kiss the feet of his former enemy. With imperious pride and a thirst for revenge that casts a dark shade over the character of one claiming to be the only earthly vicar of Christ, the haughty pontiff trode upon the emperor's neck, and when the latter dared to murmur at this foul indignity, it was again repeated more firmly than before. But his degradation, deep as it was, did not end here, for we are told that when the pope left the cathedral, and prepared to mount his charger, the emperor held his stirrup, and assisted him into the saddle.

With his once mighty enemies powerless at his feet, Alexander, accompanied by the doge, and surrounded by a magnificent train, proceeded to Rome, where the latter was entertained in all the gorgeous splendor that could be lavished upon the most honored guest of the imperial city. The high and brilliant reputation which Venice had now acquired, was unsurpassed by that of the mightiest nation in Europe. She was hailed as the deliverer of Italy, the champion and protector of the holy see. The power of the emperor in the Italian cities had been crushed by her, and while this secured to the Venetians the gratitude of the Lombard towns, it also relieved them from all apprehensions of their once powerful and dangerous neighbor.

A short time after this, and while Venice was in the full blaze of her glory and ranked as the first maritime state on earth, the infatuated followers of the cross started the fourth crusade. A naval force must be furnished and ships supplied to convey the crusading host to the Holy Land, and ambassadors were despatched to Venice, the only nation able to raise and equip an armament of the requisite size and strength. They were received by the doge in a manner suited to their distinguished rank, and as the proposition they bore was of the utmost importance to the whole republic, a grand meeting of more than ten thousand citizens was held to deliberate upon its acceptance. Before this vast assembly the ambassadors appeared, and falling upon their knees, as the chronicler saith, with many tears implored the Venetians to look with pity upon the Holy City in the bondage of the infidels, and for God's sake to join in avenging the wrongs of Jesus Christ. The tears shed and supplications uttered upon this occasion, would probably have effected little towards inducing the republic to extend the required aid, had they not been backed and supported by the most substantial considerations. Eighty-five thousand marks was offered for the use of the necessary fleet, and this, with the prospect that existed of securing both territory and treasure by the expedition, proved a temptation too strong to be resisted by the Venetians, who promised to furnish palanders for the transport of four thousand five hundred horse and nine thousand esquires; ships for four thousand five hundred knights, twenty thousand sergeants on foot, with provisions for this vast force for the space of nine months; in addition to which they agreed to equip fifty galleys for the love of God, free of expense; tacked to which apparently generous and disinterested offer, was the extraordinary condition, that all conquests made by land or sea, should be divided equally between the contracting parties.

This business-like and truly mercantile arrangement, requiring an immense outlay, and involving preparations upon a scale of gigantic magnitude, was most faithfully carried out on the part of the Venetians. The entire armament stipulated for was furnished, and although some difficulty

was experienced by the captains of the crusading force in raising a sum large enough to comply with the agreement on their part, yet, after some concessions made by the doge to enable them to effect this object, it was finally accomplished, and nearly five hundred vessels, having on board forty thousand troops, together with stores, provisions, and a powerful train of the stupendous artillery of that period, sailed for the Holy Land.

It is not within our purpose to give the history of this crusade, nor shall we describe the wide-spread operations and immense conquests of those engaged in it. Our readers are no doubt familiar with the startling events and chivalrous actions of those times, and to fill our pages with them here, would be but a repetition of what may be found in the numerous volumes of both truth and fiction that chronicle the splendid exploits of that romantic and gorgeous age. The results of the expedition were, in a commercial aspect, of vast importance to the republic, and it is of these only that we shall make brief mention.

The mighty armament departed from Venice, but it was not destined to transport its warriors to scourge the infidels on the plains of Palestine. Against the Christian city of Zara, which had thrown off the Venetian yoke, the doge and barons, in opposition to the interdict of the pope, first directed their arms; and when its walls were battered down, and its streets, deserted of their inhabitants, were occupied by the besieging force, the city was pillaged of its treasures, and these were divided between the allied forces. The crusading host next advanced upon Constantinople, also under the dominion of the cross, and celebrated as the magnificent capital of the Greek empire—the lesser Rome of the eastern world. This vast city was attacked, and after a host of glorious exploits performed by the Venetians upon their favorite element the sea, and by the mailed chivalry of France upon the land, its huge walls and enormous batteries were finally carried by storm, and the Christian force poured into the devoted town. The amount of treasure that fell into their hands is almost incredible. The most splendid temples were rifled of their rich ornaments, and holy churches despoiled of their consecrated plate. The entire city was given up to universal pillage, and a division of the spoils, determined upon with the most scrupulous exactness, was then made between the French and Venetian armies. This accomplished, Baldwin, Count of Flanders, a descendant of Charlemagne, and one of the most distinguished leaders of which the crusaders could boast, was chosen emperor, and the doge, after being invested in the name of his country with an immense territory, in which were comprised the familiar names of Egospotamus, Nicomedia, Adrianople, part of Eubœa, Egina, Megalopolis, Methone, Patras, the Cyclades, Sporades, and numerous other isles of the Archipelago and Adriatic, besides a long line of ports stretching along the entire shores of the empire, returned to his native city, clothed in addition to his former title with the imposing style of Despot of Romania, and lord of one fourth and one eighth of the Roman empire.

Adding these territories to the possessions the Venetians had previously acquired, and they present a foreign domain of vast extent, with commercial resources of incalculable value. Much of this was in time reconquered by its old masters, or willingly surrendered by the republic, too politic to weaken its strength at home, by the maintenance of a military force in foreign lands; but as these kingdoms were released from its sway, care was taken that the commercial privileges its citizens had acquired

from their enjoyment, should be preserved. Nor was this often difficult to accomplish, for Venice gathered and dispensed through the agency of her vast shipping almost the entire luxuries of the known world, and the trade of her citizens was on this account eagerly courted by all nations.

At the close of the fifteenth century, Venice was in the meridian of her glory,—at the very summit of her power. Nearly one hundred years before this, and her annual exports and imports to and from the *lagune* had amounted to the enormous sum of twenty-eight millions eight hundred thousand ducats; worth in those days many times what it would be at present; and even this was now prodigiously increased. Her dominions, too, embraced a wide range of territory; her riches were immeasurable, and her resources various and powerful. From the Po to the eastern boundary of the Mediterranean and the Don, stretched her long line of close-linked maritime stations; filled with the rich merchandise of all climes, enabling her to grasp almost the exclusive monopoly of trade throughout the European and eastern world. At home, her manufactures flourished a century in advance of the age. The culture of silk, introduced into the *lagune* from Constantinople, was most successfully prosecuted; and while its domestic use was interdicted to all save the high magistrates of the republic, her looms supplied the remainder of christendom with the most splendid specimens of this delicate and costly fabric. Her cloths, composed of the finest fleeces of Spain and England, were unrivalled in their beauty; and for the creation of her rich linens, the flax of Lombardy afforded ample materials. From the manufacture of gilt leather alone, one hundred thousand ducats were annually produced, while liquors, confectionery, and waxen tapers, the last of which were consumed to a great extent in the performance of holy services at Rome, increased and swelled the varied exports of the Ocean Queen. Costly mirrors from the glass-houses of Murano adorned the gorgeous palaces of Europe; and while the choicest luxuries of the age were profusely manufactured on every hand, in the laboratories of Venice were distilled and sublimated the rarest chemical preparations required either by medicine or the arts.

The republic was not at this period more distinguished for its far-reaching commerce, the perfection of its manufactures, its internal strength, and the wide-spread dominions over which its sovereignty extended, than for its elegant literature, and the number of its citizens celebrated for their genius and learning. Among these, the names of Erasmus, Bembo, Gaunto, Navagero, Sabellico, and several others, are surrounded with associations and a fame of the most glittering character. Venice had now arrived at the epoch of her loftiest elevation, from which she gradually fell, until at last she was blotted out from the scale of nations. To follow her darkening fortunes, and trace out the causes of her fall, is not within our present purpose. Civilization and the arts, borne onward by the mighty science of printing, slowly traversed the slumbering states of Europe, awakening their dark-minded inhabitants to a knowledge of the resources within their reach; and as other nations, under the influence of this new light, arose from their long sleep, shook off the lethargy of ages, and started in the race of improvement, Venice, surrounded by rivals, where she had before known no competition, commenced her downward course. Long and hard she struggled to maintain her brilliant stand as the first maritime power on earth, and many and fierce were the battles she fought to preserve her hard-earned conquests; but one after

another were wrested from her, until at last the islands of the *lagune* bounded her once vast sovereignty. The reformation spread its blazing light throughout Europe, and in its track followed the arts and sciences; barbarism fled at its approach, industry in its thousand branches was awakened, new maritime states arose, and England, with all her energies and half her wealth applied to the extension of her commerce, and the increase of her naval strength, soon occupied that pre-eminent rank as a maritime power, which the arm and the policy of Venice had become impotent to retain.

And thus did her glory and strength fade away, while her citizens, too proud to engage in the commercial employment to which they owed all their former greatness, passed their lives in continual dissipation and the most enervating pleasures. Many of ancient families and noble blood, who had in this manner expended their entire fortunes, were reduced to abject want; and to these, begging licenses were officially granted by the state, and assuming a particular dress, with a hood drawn over the face to conceal their features, these noble beggars, under the name of the shamefaced, walked abroad and asked alms. That stern independence which for centuries had prevailed in the Venetian councils, elevating them beyond the reach of foreign influence, had departed; and with it had gone the honor, the dignity, and the virtues of her nobles and her citizens. The once mighty elements of her power had fled, her shipping had disappeared, her commercial interests were rapidly decaying, her once proud navy was no more, and the vast line of maritime stations she had formerly possessed, no longer acknowledged the sway of the Adriatic Queen. Stript of her strength, and regarded with contempt by kingdoms once her slaves, Venice, for a century before she was blotted from the catalogue of nations, slumbered on nerveless and inactive, unheeded by her neighbors, and becoming weaker and less formidable as every successive year rolled by; until at last, when Napoleon, holding the entire north of Italy in his grasp, presented himself before her, and haughtily demanded her surrender, the members of the grand council, carried away by fear, precipitately and without a struggle delivered their country into his hands. Three thousand French soldiers at once marched into the city; every vestige of its independence was swept away, and in the division of territory that ensued, Venice was transferred to Austria; and on the 18th of January, 1798, the Austrian emperor assumed the control of his newly acquired domain. And in this manner did a maritime power, boasting an unbroken sway of more than eleven hundred years, sink into the grave of departed empires; and thus passed away that republic which had withstood the revolutions, battled with the shocks, and endured the changes of centuries.

We have called Venice a republic, and yet for many centuries before her fall, she hardly deserved the name. The doge was early invested with an irresponsible power, which on some occasions he exercised in the most despotic manner; and after the lapse of a few hundred years, the great body of the people ceased to exercise any important influence in matters of state. The prerogatives of the doge at length became dangerous to the interests of the nobility, and one after another were lopped off, until at last he became a mere puppet in their hands. Then commenced the reign of the Forty and the Ten; and finally was erected that fearful tribunal, the Grand Inquisition of State. These mighty arms of the government, acting with mysterious secrecy, and enforcing a code of laws

whose mildest provisions sanctioned poison and the dagger, upon even the suspicion of crime, wielded the destinies of Venice; and yet she preserved the name and outward semblance of a republic. Her citizens were seized, tortured, imprisoned, secretly tried and executed, and yet they boasted of freedom, the supremacy and purity of their laws, and of the wisdom of their institutions. But with all the imperfections and deformities of her political and moral system, sanctioning, as they unquestionably did, the darkest crimes, and the most terrible punishments, Venice, during the long line of centuries through which she flourished, stood in the front rank of nations, surpassed by few in the justice and humanity of her government, excelled by none in her knowledge of the arts and sciences, and in the perfection of her manufactures, and outstripping all in the magnitude of her commercial interests, and in the extent and splendor of her maritime power.

ART. II.—THERMOMETRICAL OBSERVATIONS AS CONNECTED WITH NAVIGATION.

THE UTILITY OF THERMOMETRICAL OBSERVATIONS IN ASCERTAINING THE RELATIVE HEAT OF THE SEA-WATER FROM TIME TO TIME, TO DISCOVER THE PASSAGE OF A VESSEL THROUGH THE GULF STREAM, AND FROM DEEP WATER INTO SOUNDINGS,—BANKS AND ROCKS, IN TIME TO AVOID DANGER, ALTHOUGH, OWING TO TEMPESTUOUS WEATHER, IT MAY BE IMPOSSIBLE TO HEAVE THE LEAD, OR OBSERVE THE HEAVENLY BODIES;—AND ON PRESERVING VESSELS FROM LIGHTNING.

THE Merchants' Magazine has been so well conducted, and contains so much useful matter, which "comes home to the business and bosoms of mankind," that I am pleased by making it the vehicle of my remarks upon two of the most important subjects to which the attention of the nautical and mercantile community can be called.

The first head of my paper is the title of one which was read before the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, in the year 1790,* by the late General Jonathan Williams of the United States army,† whose

* Trans., vol. II, p. 82.

† I cannot permit this opportunity to pass without bearing testimony to the great merits of this excellent man. Like his relation Dr. Franklin, the tendency of his thoughts and actions was utility to his fellow creatures, to whom he also set an example of refined manners, uprightness of conduct, and good will, which can never be forgotten by those who had the happiness of his acquaintance. He entered the American army in the year 1801, and rose to the rank of colonel of engineers. It is to him that our country is indebted for the idea of the military academy at West Point, and for its organization, a task of no ordinary difficulty. His admirable, mild, but firm discipline, subdued tempers disposed to be unruly, eradicated bad habits from among the pupils, while he stimulated all to an honorable ambition to excel in their private deportment and in their official duties. His government was parental, and he was beloved as a father by the youth under his command. Science has seldom been applied more beneficially to forwarding the business of mankind, than in the instance of Mr. Williams' experiments,

attention was first called to the subject under consideration, from having made, in the year 1785, by the direction of his relation Dr. Franklin, the experiments mentioned in his description of the course of the Gulf Stream, an account of which was annexed to his "maritime observations," addressed to the learned A. Le Roy of Paris,* and he determined to repeat these experiments in his future voyages. Accordingly, in one from Boston to Virginia, two from Virginia to England, three from England to Halifax, and four from Halifax to New York, he kept regular journals of the heat of the air and water at sunrise, noon, and sunset, and by consulting these, and the observations made at the dates written, together with the tracks of the ship's way, marked on the chart annexed, it will not only appear that Dr. Franklin's account of the warmth of the Gulf Stream is confirmed,† but also that banks, coasts, islands of ice, and rocks under water, may be discovered when not visible, and when the weather is too boisterous to sound, with no other trouble than dipping the thermometer into the sea-water. His experiments also establish the following facts.

1. That the water over banks is much colder than the water of the main ocean, and it is more cold in proportion as it is less deep.

2. The water over small banks is less cold than that of large ones.

3. The water over banks of the coast, that is, those immediately connected with the land above water, is warmer than that over those which admit deep water between them and the coast; but still it is colder than the adjacent sea.

4. The water within capes and rivers does not follow those rules; it being less agitated, and more exposed to the heat of the sun, and receiving the heat from the circumjacent land, must be colder or warmer than that in soundings without, according to the seasons and temperature of the atmosphere.

5. The passage, therefore, from deep to shoal water may be discovered by a regular use of the thermometer before a navigator can see the land; but as the temperature is relative, no particular degree can be ascertained as a rule, and the judgment can only be guided by the difference. Thus, in August, Mr. Williams found the water off Cape Cod to be 58° of Fahrenheit, and at sea 69°; in October, the water off Cape Cod was 48°, and at sea it was 59°. This difference was equally a guide in both cases, though the heat was different at different seasons.

The chart and first journal of Mr. Williams, from Boston to Virginia, shows that the water on the coast of Massachusetts was at 48°; at sea, between the coast and the stream, 59°; in the Gulf Stream, at its edge, 67°; between that and the Virginia coast, further south, 64°, and in soundings on that coast, 56°.

and every navigator is under lasting obligations to him, for the knowledge of the means of securing their safety at times when the compass, the log, or the quadrant, nay, the organs of vision, avail them nothing.

* Trans. Amer. Philos. Soc., vol. II, p. 328.

† The increased heat of the Gulf Stream, although doubtless familiar to navigators, it is believed was first noticed in print by Dr. Blagden in his paper on the subject, in the Transactions of the Royal Society of London for 1781. On the 30th September, 1777, the water was at 76 deg. of Fahrenheit, and eleven deg. above that of the sea, before the vessel came into the current. Mr. Strickland found this difference to be even greater, as will appear presently.

The second journal from Virginia to England, shows that the water on the coast of Virginia, in December, was at 47° ; between the coast and the stream, 60° , and in the stream 70° ; near the banks of Newfoundland the thermometer fell from 66° to 54° ; passing these it arose again to 60° , and then continued a very gradual descent as he went north, till he struck soundings, when it was at 48° .

In Dr. Franklin's journal of November, 1776, the thermometer fell 10° ; near the banks and after passing them, it arose nearly to its former height. This agrees with Mr. Williams' journal nearly in the same place, made nine years afterward.

The third journal from England to Halifax shows the changes in the heat of the water, as he sailed over the banks and deep water alternately, with an accuracy that exceeded his expectation, the land appearing as the thermometer indicated an approach to it.

The journal from Halifax to New York, not only shows the variety of depths passed over, but indicates the inner edge of the Gulf Stream.

On the chart annexed to Mr. Williams' paper, the tracks of his several passages are marked, with the daily heat of the water, by which the variations on the approach to land may be seen at one view. The edge of the Gulf Stream is also traced, according to the experiments, as far as the banks of Newfoundland.

In addition to his journals, Mr. Williams has subjoined an account of some experiments on fish, (cod and halibut,) which show that their heat was 16° colder than the water at the surface, from which it may be supposed that the water at bottom is in proportion colder than that above: air 57° , water 52° , fish's belly 37° . Lat. $44^{\circ} 52'$; (July, 1790:) air 57° , water 53° , fish's belly 37° .*

The difference of heat which marks an approach to land, he found to be 6 degrees in three hours run, and long before the vessel was near enough to be in danger. In a former voyage, it was found that near the coast, in very hot weather, the water at the bottom, in 18 fathoms, was 12 degrees colder than at the surface. This difference of heat is more remarkable in winter than in summer, for Captain Billings of Philadelphia, in a voyage to Oporto, in June, 1791, found that the water on the coast was 61° , and in the Gulf Stream 77° . By Mr. Williams' journals it appears that, in November, 1789, the water on the coast was 47° , and in the Gulf Stream at 70° .† Returning towards the coast of North America, Captain Billings discovered his passage across the Gulf Stream by a sudden fall in the mercury of 5° from noon to night; and about 5° further west, by a further fall, in the space of 8 hours, he discovered the coast, where he got soundings before he saw the land.

On the subject of the utility of the thermometer at sea, Captain Thomas Truxton, the well-known United States naval commander, wrote to Mr. Williams the following letter:—

* These experiments were made by an officer of the British packet *Chesterfield*, Captain Schuyler, July 11, 1790. The preceding day, in another experiment, the temperature of the air was 57 deg., that of the belly of the fish 39 deg., water 52 deg., depth 46 fathoms. These results were communicated to Mr. Williams by Captain Schuyler.

† *Trans. Amer. Philos. Soc.*, vol. III, p. 194.

Extract of a letter from Captain Thomas Truxton to Jonathan Williams.

“PERTH AMBOY, 12th August, 1799.

“Your publication will be of use to navigation, by rendering sea voyages secure, far beyond what even you yourself will immediately calculate, for I have proved the utility of the thermometer very often since we sailed together,* not only in crossing and re-crossing the Gulf Stream that runs along our coasts, but in the Ethiopian, Indian, Arabian and Chinese seas, Gulf of Bengal, Gulf of Siam, the various straits in the eastern world, and in many other parts of the globe.

“It will be found a most valuable instrument in the hands of mariners, and particularly so to those who are unacquainted with astronomical observations, and calculations for determining the longitude at sea; these particularly stand in need of a simple method of ascertaining their approach to, or distance from the coast, especially in the winter season; for it is then that passages are often prolonged, and ships blown off the coast, by hard westerly winds, and vessels being in the Gulf Stream, without its being known; on which account they are often hove to, by the captains supposing themselves near to the coast, when they are very far off, and by this means favorable spirits of wind are lost. On the other hand, ships are often cast on the coast by sailing in the eddy of the stream, which causes them to outrun their common reckoning. Every year produces new proofs of these facts, and of the calamities incident thereto.”

Mr. Williams gives the following important directions to navigators:—

DIRECTIONS TO NAVIGATORS.

“Take with you at least three thermometers, for fear of accidents. Let them be kept in one place some days previous to your sailing, in order to try their uniformity. The plate should be of ivory or metal, for wood will swell at sea, and as the glass-tube will not yield, it is for this reason very liable to break; bell-metal is the best. Let the instrument be fixed in a square metal box, the bottom of which, as high as the mark 30° , should be water-tight, so that in examining the degree of heat, the ball may be kept in the water; the remainder of the length should be open in front, with only two or three cross-bars to ward off any accidental blow, like the thermometer used by brewers. Fix one instrument in some part of the ship in the shade, and in open air; but as much out of the wind, and in as dry a place as possible. The after part of one of the after-stanchions, under the quarter-rail, may answer, if no better place can be found.

“Let the second instrument be neatly slung with a sufficiency of line to allow it to tow in the dead water of the wake.

“Put the third away safely in your chest, to be ready to supply the place of either of the others.

“When you make your observations, begin by noting the state of the air from the instrument on deck. Throw the other out of the cabin window, and let it tow two or three minutes, then draw it up and examine it the instant you can bring it to your eye, with the ball *still in water*, and note the degree. This is a necessary precaution, for the mercury will soon fall when the thermometer is wet, especially if exposed to any wind. When you examine the water at night, take care not to heat the instrument by a candle, which should be always in a lantern; do not touch the tube, nor breathe upon it, while you examine it; lest you should communicate heat by the touch, or take it away by causing an evaporation, which is the effect of blowing upon a wet thermometer.

“Endeavor to make all your experiments in a uniform manner; do not

* Captain T. commanded the ship in which Dr. Franklin and Mr. Williams were passengers from Europe to the United States, in the year 1785.

try the water one day out of the cabin windows, another over the side, or in a bucket, but keep to one steady rule ; it is not so material which way you do it, as it is to do it always the same way. If a bucket be used, let it tow long enough to take away its heat, for the cook may have had it full of hot water.

“Pay constant attention to the changes in the temperature of the air, and compare them daily with the changes in that of the water. This will account to you for the alterations on the surface of the sea, (especially in calm weather,) which naturally follow the alterations in the incumbent atmosphere. The difference between deep water and soundings will, under the same temperature of the atmosphere, still be the same. If, when in open sea, you should perceive a small change in the water, without being able to account for it by an alteration of latitude, or of the weather, you may suspect a current from the northward if colder, from the southward if warmer ; and as circumstances may permit, you will do well to ascertain it.

“Compare your observations from time to time with those mentioned in the journals and noted on the chart, and if you find any difference when in the same situation, repeat your experiments, so as to be sure that the error is not on your side.

“Although it is not pretended to give accurate accounts, from the few experiments that have been made, it is presumed that the following will be found near the truth.

“FROM THE COAST OF EUROPE.—From the channel of England to the Tagus it will be generally found, that the water over soundings is about three degrees colder than at sea. And that the first symptom of soundings is at a great distance from the land, for the coast, (unlike that of America,) approaches from imperceptible depth to soundings so gradually, that it is not easy to say when you can get the ground. But were you to approach the rocks of Scilly, western coast of Ireland, Orkneys, &c., the alteration would probably be sudden and very decisive.

“ON THE COAST OF NORTH AMERICA.—At the edge of the Grand Bank, the water is 5 degrees colder than the deep ocean to the eastward. The highest part of the Grand Bank is 10° colder still, or 15° colder than the ocean eastward.

“As the banks deepen between them and the coast of Nova Scotia, the water grows about 6° warmer, till you get quite within them, when it rises to about the temperature of the deep ocean without ; on soundings, the mercury will again fall to the temperature of the inner banks. So that, in coming from the eastward, a fall of 5° will indicate your entrance on the edge of the Grand Bank, and a further fall of 10° will indicate your being in soundings. Passing the summit of the banks, a rise of 6° will show the western edge of the Grand Bank, and a further rise to the temperature of the deep ocean without, will indicate the deep water within the banks. When the mercury falls again to the temperature of the inner banks, you strike soundings on the coast of Nova Scotia.

“An important observation occurs here. The Isle of Sable is a little bank of sand above water, which receives heat readily from a hot sun and communicates it rapidly to the shoals under water, upon the principle mentioned as to land-locked places. If, therefore, you come too near that island in hot weather, the thermometer will probably vary from these rules ; in that case, you may get bottom. If, however, the previous ob-

servations are well made, you need not be in danger; for you can, by your meridian altitude, shape your course as far to the northward or southward as you choose.

“On the coast of New England, off Cape Cod, the water out of soundings is 8° or 10° warmer than in soundings, and in the stream it is about 8° warmer still. So that, in coming from the eastward, a fall of 8 degrees will indicate your leaving the stream, and a further fall of 8 degrees will indicate your being on soundings.

“On the coast from Cape Henlopen to Cape Henry, the water out of soundings is 5 degrees warmer than in soundings, and in the stream about 5 degrees warmer still. So that, in coming from the eastward, a fall of 6 degrees will indicate your leaving the stream, and a further fall of 5 degrees will give notice of soundings.

“By this sort of comparison, a navigator may readily ascertain when he leaves the stream and enters on soundings. It is not presumed to speak positively as to the degrees, except where it has been proved by experiment.”

In the year 1810, Mr. Francis D. Masson writes to Mr. Williams from Clifton, England, and sends his journal to show “with what fidelity the thermometer indicated the Banks, and the approximation to islands of ice:”^{*} on this Mr. W. remarks, “The important point of comparison is the *difference* in the *heat of the water* in *different places*, in or near the stream (gulf) in the ocean, out of the stream on the coast, and near islands of ice, not the *difference between the heat of the water* and the air, as some have imagined. This latter is merely a concurrent observation, serving to account for ordinary changes, and thereby to guide the judgment. From Mr. Masson’s journal it appears that in April 28, 29, the temperature of the sea on the shoals of Sable varied from 40° to 43° ; at five p. m. of the last day the influence of the Gulf Stream raised it to 62–64; at ten p. m. the temperature between the stream in deep water and the coast was 54° , which is about a mean between the two; then standing off shore at nine the next morning, 30th, the air and water were both at 60° . On the first of May, the mercury fell to 46° , (fourteen degrees,) no bottom—probably an ice island obscured by fog; at two p. m. the glass stood at 54° , but in one hour it fell to 46° , and *an island of ice* appeared at the distance of seven miles.” Subsequently the ship proceeds in a regular degree of heat during seventeen hours, till six p. m., when the water again cooled, and fell to 56° at midnight, without bottom in eighty fathoms. Next morning appeared “an island of ice abreast one hundred yards, one hundred and fifty feet high, and a mile in diameter! We were sailing directly towards it. The obscurity was so great, that at that distance it appeared like a white cloud extending from the sea over our masts. Water at 39° .”

Thus far from Mr. Williams. When I read for the first time his paper in the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, I was forcibly struck with its importance, and made use of it in the year 1804, when preparing my edition of Willieh’s excellent Domestic Encyclopedia for the press. I also added the result of the observations made by the late Mr. Joseph Donath, of Philadelphia, during a voyage to Hamburg in the year 1791, which confirmed the utility of the thermometer in detecting the vicinity of

^{*} Archives of Useful Knowledge, by the author, vol. 1. p. 254. Mr. Masson’s observations were made on board the British packet *Eliza*, from New York to Falmouth.

ice islands previously to their being seen. He also furnished the following facts that occurred at a subsequent date. On the eighth of May, 1794, when on the banks of Newfoundland, the thermometer immersed in seawater fell from 9° to 3° ,* in the course of six hours, viz, from four P. M. to ten o'clock; at twelve at night it fell to 2° .† The captain, alarmed at the circumstance, immediately, as by previous agreement, awoke Mr. Donath, who suspecting the diminution of temperature in the water to proceed from an approach to islands of ice, advised the captain to stand off. He did so, and when daylight appeared they saw several of them, distant about four or five miles. At ten o'clock, in thirty-five fathoms water, the thermometer rose to 6° .‡ The late Mr. William Poyntell of Philadelphia, also informed me that he had amused himself during a voyage to London, about the year 1801, in examining the temperature of the water, on various occasions, and he found the principles laid down by Mr. Williams to be correct.

Mr. William Strickland of England, who visited the United States in 1794, has added his testimony in confirmation of Mr. Williams' remarks on this subject. He says that "in the month of August, (26th,) there was a difference of 20° of the thermometer between the water on the Grand Bank of Newfoundland, and in the same latitude in the ocean not far to the east of it. The thermometer fell in four days from 72° to 52° ; its rise showing when the ship quitted the bank. The vicinity of Sable Island bank, on the fifth of September, caused a fall of seven degrees, and on the seventh of that month, a bank, not marked in any chart he had seen, in fifty-five fathoms, caused a further fall of 11° . Mr. Strickland's journal from America to England confirms the previous observations made in this track. The thermometer again fell no less than 20° on passing to the southeast of Newfoundland, and rose again 9° in the same latitudes, where, in his outward-bound voyage, he supposed himself crossing a branch of the Gulf Stream. The fall from hence of the thermometer, as the coast of Europe approached, is very remarkable and uniform.|| Mr. Strickland annexes to his paper the journal of his voyages from Hull, in England, to New York, in 1794, and that from Philadelphia to Falmouth in 1795, during which daily observations on the temperature of the atmosphere and the sea are recorded, with many useful remarks, and a chart of his two routes and of the Gulf Stream, with the temperature of the water.

In a paper on this subject in the third volume of Dr. Brewster's and Jameson's Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, page 247, by Andrew Livingston, the author, says that "it is now placed beyond dispute, that the thermometer indicates the proximity of the shores of the middle parts of the coasts of the United States of America, but I am not aware of any experiments having been made to the northward of $43^{\circ} 12$ min., in which latitude the thermometers used by Mr. Masson on board the packet ship *Eliza* were broken. Many circumstances lead me to incline to the opinion, that to the north of the Tropic of Cancer, in the northern Atlantic,

* 52 deg. to 38 deg. of Fahrenheit. Mr. D. used Reaumur's scale. † 36 deg. of Fah.

‡ 45 deg. of Fahrenheit. Domestic Encyclopedia, article Thermometer.

|| Mr. Strickland, (now Sir William Strickland, Bart.) addressed his communication to Mr. Williams, whose paper he had read.—Trans. Amer. Philos. Society, Philadelphia, vol. V, p. 90.

the thermometer is a useful indicator of an approach to land. My journal on board the ship *Asia*, from New Orleans to Gibraltar, in 1818, (August and September,) shows that at that season the nearness to land or soundings in the Gulf of Mexico, and in the strait between Cuba and the Tortugas and Martyr's reefs, had no effect upon the thermometer, but that as soon as we passed Cape Florida, when conscious of our proximity to the shore to the south of Cape Canaveral, *it will be perceived how faithful a monitor it proved.* The instant it fell two or three degrees I caused the ship to be tacked, nor did it in a single instance betray me, as it invariably fell before we could find soundings with one hundred fathoms. I call it a valuable instrument, and it truly proved so on that occasion to me, for with the wind dead on shore for twelve or fourteen days, in a ship of two hundred and seventy-six tons, we had only four men and a boy fit for duty, all the rest, officers included, being sick with fever. On the coast of America no vessel need run ashore without a previous warning of the proximity to land, if there is only a thermometer on board, and it is regularly attended to." This testimony of a British navigator is very valuable, and gratifying to the friends of the author of the important measure of thermometrical observations on sea-water, and complimentary to his memory. The last authority I shall quote, is a writer "C." in the *Salem Gazette* of June last, who evidently is an old shipmaster. His testimony is positive as to the importance of the thermometer, and he writes from ample experience.

I was induced to turn my attention to this subject at the present time, in consequence of the melancholy disaster which befell the packet ship *William Brown*, Capt. Harris, when on her passage from Liverpool to Philadelphia, by running against two islands of ice in immediate succession, on the 19th of April, 1841. Capt. Harris stated to the editor of the *North American*, that the first suspicion he had of the contiguity of ice, was the terrible collision,* a fact confirmed to me by Capt. H. himself, on the 9th of August. Seeing it stated frequently that the masses of ice in this year on the banks were greater than ever known, I was led to inquire why he had not anticipated their proximity from the sudden coldness of the air, which I presumed must have occurred. He replied, that he was not sensible of any change of temperature in the air, by reason of the wind blowing southeast from the ship towards the ice, in place of west, which would have driven the cold air from the ice directly towards her. It did not occur to him to try the temperature of the sea-water, although he is aware of the utility of thermometrical observations in leading to a discovery of banks, and in former voyages had recourse to them with advantage. The loss of the *William Brown*† may, therefore, fairly be ascribed to their

* *North American*, June 21, 1841.

† The ship *William Brown* left Liverpool, March 13, 1841, with sixty-five steerage passengers, bound to Philadelphia. On the 19th April, at about 9 o'clock of a dark and foggy night, wind southeast, in lat. 43 deg. 40 min. north, and long. 49 deg. 39 min. by account, the ship, when going at the rate of ten knots an hour, ran against an iceberg, and shortly after she struck another. On examining the pumps, two feet of water were found in the hold, and the ship was filling fast. Capt. Harris, with six of the crew and one female, got into the small-boat, and the mate, Fr. Rhodes, into the long boat, with three of the crew and thirty-three passengers. At midnight the ship went down with thirty persons. In the morning Capt. H. resolved to try to reach Newfoundland, and advised the mate also to make the attempt, but the boat being so deep they could not

omission during a few days previously to her foundering, and on the day and night of that sad event, for the immense masses of ice in the vicinity must have caused a very sensible diminution of heat in the water, although from the cause mentioned the change in that of the air was not apparent; and had the cause of the fact been suspected, danger might have been avoided by an alteration of the course of the ship, or by lying to until daylight. Doubtless many other vessels have been lost from the same cause, of the fate of which nothing is known. Mr. Williams, in his remarks upon Mr. Masson's communication to him, refers to "the miserable fate of the ship *Jupiter*," the loss of which vessel from running against an ice island had probably taken place shortly before the date of his writing, viz, 1810.* I have recorded the loss of the British packet *Lady Hobart*, in July, 1803, from the same cause,† and I know of a second that occurred in the year 1822, in another British packet. I had a friend on board each of those vessels, in both of which the passengers and crews reached Halifax or some part of the coast in boats. A fifth misfortune from the same cause occurred to the ship *Lady of the Lake*, on the 11th of May, 1833, when on a voyage from Belfast to Quebec, with two hundred and thirty passengers, all of whom, fifteen excepted, went down with the ship. Another vessel, the *Jane*, with passengers, was lost in the ice, and fifteen were drowned. I presume no thermometrical observations had been made in any of these vessels.‡

Desirous of availing myself of every source of instruction and authority upon the all-important topic under consideration, I will give a summary of the remarks of a writer with the signature "C." in the *Salem (Massachusetts) Gazette*,|| and already quoted, who says he "has had much experience in crossing the Grand Banks at all seasons of the year."

1. He advises that "no vessel, as early as March 15th, should cross the

manage her, and they steered south until late in the afternoon, when they fell in with large quantities of ice. At night the wind blew strong from the south, with hard squalls, rain and hail, and a high sea, and as the boat took in water fast and leaked badly, it was impossible she could live without lightening her. On consultation, it was resolved by the mate and crew, to prevent the loss of the whole, that some should perish. At 10 o'clock, sixteen of the passengers who were most in the way, and prevented the crew from bailing out the water or working their oars, and were moreover almost dead from cold, were thrown overboard. It was not without the greatest difficulty that they could keep the boat afloat or clear her from the ice. Early the next morning they met with the ship *Crescent*, of Portsmouth, New Hampshire, Capt. Ball, who took all on board and brought them to Havre. Capt. H. was six days in the boat and at the helm, without sleep, when he was picked up by a French fishing vessel of Dieppe, Capt. Lewis Lebas. They were then two hundred miles from land. Two days before this a schooner made towards them, but a fog arose, and they lost sight of her.

* The ship *Jupiter*, bound from the United States to England, ran against an island of ice, and soon after leaked to such a degree as obliged the captain to take to the boats, in which all on board were accommodated. There were three passengers, viz, two English ladies, and Mr. Darsie of Baltimore. After several days they reached some port of Nova Scotia. I am indebted to Capt. John Meany, of Philadelphia, for this information.

† *Domestic Encyclopedia*, vol. V, p. 111.

‡ *Niles's Register*, 1833.

|| *United States Gazette of Philadelphia*, June 22, 1841.

bank north of $42^{\circ} 30$ min., and thinks that vessels are safer further north the last of April or first of May, say $44\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to 45° ." *

2. "The best safeguard during the night, is a frequent attention to the thermometer. By placing it in water drawn from the sea, it will tell to a certainty the approach to ice." Of this he gives a case decidedly in point.

I view the use of the thermometer so important to ascertain by the temperature of sea-water the presence of a vessel in the Gulf Stream, and the proximity of banks, rocks, or ice islands, that I think regular daily observations with it on the temperature of the sea-water, with such remarks as may occur, and the record of them in the log-book, ought to be conditions in the policies of all vessels insured.

Insurers would also find it their interest to reprint part of the papers of Mr. Williams, Sir William Strickland, and Mr. Masson, with the charts of the two former, and the remarks of Mr. Williams on the journal of the last, and to present the pamphlet to the captain of every vessel insured by them. If printed, they ought to be bound in boards, if not leather, to prevent their certain and rapid destruction which would result from their being merely covered with paper. The preservation of the vessels mentioned in this paper, by their use, and the loss of others for want of them, would seem to leave no doubt as to the propriety of the measure.

II.. TO GUARD VESSELS FROM THE EFFECTS OF LIGHTNING.

This tremendous agent is doubtless the cause of many losses at sea. One was on board a sloop bound to Georgia, with stores for the United States troops then in service in that state. It took place in the month of December, several years since, off the southern coast, but I cannot state the particulars. Another and very serious case happened more recently. The fine packet ship Poland, from New York to Havre, was struck on the 16th May, 1840, when five days out, and entirely destroyed by the fire that ensued. She had twenty-four cabin passengers, eleven in the steerage, and a crew of twenty-eight, officers included. After floating in a burning vessel for forty-eight hours, they were saved by the providential meeting with the New York packet ship Clifton, from Liverpool, Capt. Ingersoll. The value of the cargo, including \$70,000 in specie, was \$132,000. Mr. Harris of Plymouth, England, in a very valuable paper,† on the importance of lightning rods to ships, gives the particulars of four merchant ships, and six frigates or ships of war, which were struck by lightning, with more or less damage in five of them.

In none of these was there a conductor, while on one occasion, in Port Royal, Jamaica, in 1815, several ships surrounding the ship of war Norge, and having conductors up, remained untouched, while that ship and a merchant ship, neither of which had them, were struck. The Norge was "completely disabled." He adds, that in the course of the last war, great

* A retired shipmaster of high standing, who had often sailed between Philadelphia and Liverpool, recommends to all vessels leaving England early in the spring, to pass the banks in about lat. 41° to 42° , because the chance will be that then the icebergs will not have reached that far south; and to those leaving in June, to cross the banks not further south than 45° , on the belief that by that time the ice will have drifted southward. The William Brown, as stated, met with the ice in lat $43^{\circ} 40$ min. on the 19th of April, an unusually early date for their appearance.

† Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal, vol. III.

part of the British Mediterranean fleet, of thirteen sail of the line, under Lord Exmouth, were disabled by lightning, and were then furnished with conductors from Malta dockyard. The *Glory*, and the *Duke* of ninety guns, under Sir. R. Calder, were also much damaged, the *latter while in action under a battery!* No greater proof can be required of the utility of conductors in preserving vessels from lightning; nor of the danger consequent upon their being without them. Metallic rods and chains have hitherto been employed as conductors, but Mr. Harris justly remarks that "they are inapplicable to ships in consequence of their masts, (the only parts to which they can be attached,) being exposed to elongation and contraction, and to the necessity which frequently arises for removing the higher masts altogether, and placing them on deck." The chains moreover "are usually packed in a box, and are intended to be set up when occasions require, so that, as observed by Mr. Singer, in his work on electricity, they frequently remain in the ship's hold unemployed."* Mr. Morgan, in his lectures on this subject, also condemns them, and recommends strips of copper or lead in preference. Mr. Harris gives the following directions for fixing these strips.

"To protect a ship effectually from damage by lightning, it is essential that the conductor be as continuous and as direct as possible from the highest points to the sea; that it be permanently fixed in the masts, throughout their whole extent, so as to admit of the motion of one portion of the mast upon another, and in case of the removal of any part of the mast, together with the conductor attached to it, either from accident or design, the remaining portion should still be perfect, and equivalent to transmit an electrical discharge into the sea. To fulfil these conditions, pieces of sheet copper, from one eighth to one sixteenth of an inch thick, and about two feet long, and varying from six inches to one inch and a half in breadth, may be inserted into the masts in two laminæ, one over the other; the butts or joints of the one being covered by the central portions of the other. The laminæ should be riveted together at the butts, so as to form a long elastic continuous line; the whole conductor is inserted under the edges of a neat groove, ploughed longitudinally in the aft side of the different masts, and secured in its position by wrought copper nails, so as to present a fair surface. The metallic line thus constructed, will then pass downward from the copper spindle at the mast head along the aft sides of the royal-mast and top-gallant-mast, being connected in its course with the copper about the shieve-holes. A copper lining in the aft side of the cap, through which the top-mast slides, now takes up the connection, and continues it over the cap to the aft side of the top-mast, and so on as before, to the step of the mast. Here it meets a thick wide copper lining, turned round the step, under the heel of the mast, and resting on a similar layer of copper, fixed to the kelson. This last is connected with some of the kelson bolts, and with three perpendicular bolts of copper, of two inches in diameter, which are driven into the main keel upon three transverse or horizontal bolts, brought into immediate contact with the

* This neglect took place on board the packet ship *New York*, which was twice struck by lightning on the 19th April, 1827, on her passage from New York to Liverpool. A conducting chain at the time of the first explosion was stowed away in its box below, but was set up immediately afterward, and probably prevented the firing of the ship.

copper expanded over the bottom. The laminæ of copper are turned over the respective mast heads, and secured about an inch or more down on the opposite side ; the cap which corresponds is prepared in a somewhat similar way, the copper being continued from the lining in the aft part of the round hole over the cap, into the fore part of the square one, where it is turned down and secured as before, so that when the cap is in its place, the contact is complete. In this way we have, under all circumstances, a continuous metallic line, from the highest points to the sea, which will transmit the electric matter directly through the keel, being the line of least resistance. Since the mizen-mast does not step on the keelson, it will be necessary to have a metallic communication at the step of the mast with the perpendicular stanchion immediately under it, and so on to the keelson as before, or otherwise carry the conductor out at the sides of the vessel."

ART. III.—BRITISH IMPORT DUTIES.

RESUMPTION OF THE EVIDENCE GIVEN BEFORE THE COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS ON IMPORT DUTIES.*

IN a former number of this work we gave an abstract of the report of the committee of the house of commons on import duties, and the evidence of John M'Gregor, Esq. We now proceed to an analysis of other evidence corroborative of the views set forth by the said committee, which will prove equally interesting.

EVIDENCE OF JOHN BOWRING, ESQ., LL. D.

The next important witness examined was John Bowring, Esq., LL.D., who had been sent abroad on a mission to ascertain the general state of the commercial relations between Great Britain and other countries, and to suggest any modifications to the governments which might lead to an extension of those relations. It appeared to him that every duty is protective which excludes any foreign article coming in competition with the home articles, or which raises the price of the home article by putting the duty upon the foreign ; and, obviously, it is to exclude the foreigner from the field of competition, by raising the price in the interest of the protected commodity. He objected to protective duties, in a fiscal point of view, on the ground that their immediate operation is to diminish trade, and the diminution of trade clearly diminishes the elements of taxation. In countries where the protective system has been carried on to its greatest extent, the revenues are least productive. In France, for example, the customhouse levies per head, under a protective system, is only about one ninth of that which is levied in England per head, under the British system, which is more liberal.

In reference to the operation of protective duties on the general interests of the country, Mr. Bowring remarked, that " a great objection to a protecting duty is, that it levies an enormous amount of indirect taxation ; and that this taxation wholly escapes the public treasury. If any example be taken, it will be seen how it works. I have made an estimate of the probable

* For an abstract of the report of the committee of the house of commons, on import duties and the evidence of John M'Gregory ; see *Merchants' Magazine* for August, 1841, vol. v. No. ii, p. 145.

amount of taxes levied on the people of this country by the inhibition of the import of live-stock and butchers' meat. I have grounded it on the statistics of the only country where I have got any thing approximative as to consumption. Prussia consumes 485,000,000 lbs. of butchers' meat, with a population of about 14,000,000. I estimate that the consumption of butchers' meat in this country cannot be less than 50 lbs. per head per annum; and it has been frequently estimated at double that amount. Now this, on 25,000,000 of consumers, makes a consumption of 1,250,000,000 lbs. per annum. If the prohibition of foreign cattle and foreign butchers' meat only raise the price here one penny a pound, it will be found that there is an indirect taxation of more than £5,000,000 levied upon the community. If the added value be 2d. a pound, which I am disposed to think is nearer the truth, it will be seen then that £10,000,000 are taken from the community in consequence of the prohibition of foreign meat; and if it should appear that the estimate is correct, which many statisticians have considered as the average of consumption in this country, viz, 100 lbs. per annum,—that is, about a third of a pound a day per individual; if the consumption be as great as that, then £20,000,000 are levied annually upon the consumers upon that article alone. I have taken another example in the case of sugar, on which there is a protecting duty, to favor the colonial interest. The returns that have been obtained in different quarters appear to show that the consumption of the United Kingdom is about 17 lbs. per annum per individual; upon that, if the additional price paid be 2d. a pound, which is a very low estimate, that is a taxation of about £3,500,000, growing out of the protection which colonial sugar has in preference to the sugar of other countries.

“The consumption of sugar in Great Britain is returned at $17\frac{1}{8}$ lbs. per head, as estimated on a population of 24,000,000. The consumption in France by the last returns is about $4\frac{3}{8}$ lbs. per head. In the states of the Germanic League, the consumption is $3\frac{3}{8}$ lbs. per head; and it is estimated that the average consumption of the whole of Europe is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per head. Hence it is obvious that the protective duty operates more severely on England, it being about seven times as great, as upon the population of Europe generally, inasmuch as the consumption of sugar is seven-fold greater.”

Mr. Bowring gave another example with reference to a fluctuating duty, namely, that on corn. He supposed that the annual consumption of every sort of corn in Great Britain is 45,000,000 quarters, upon which, if the rise of price, in consequence of the exclusion of competing foreign corn, be 5s. per quarter, it is clear that the corn laws impose an indirect taxation of more than £11,000,000 upon that community; and the general objection with respect to all those protective duties is, that it is impossible to calculate their extent, that the amount taken from the consumer is not to be reached or estimated. He also inferred that they diminish the consumption of other articles by raising the price of articles which are of absolute necessity, and thus preventing the buying of many other articles which might be of convenient or of secondary luxury. “There is,” said he, “a diminished demand for the protected article, and also a diminished demand for that labor which would pay for the non-protected article.”

With regard to the influence of protective duties upon the revenue of the country, it clearly appears that where protection acts as a prohibition, and the foreign article is excluded, there can be no revenue at all; it is destruc-

tive of revenue, when the imports are diminished by its operation, which is in fact the argument which was most effectually urged upon the Minister of Finance in France, in the negotiations with which Mr. Bowring was charged with Lord Clarendon; that at that time they were receiving somewhere about £3,500,000 nett revenue upon a population of 35,000,000, whilst, in England, under a system less protective than theirs, they were, upon a population of 24,000,000, getting nearly £20,000,000 of nett revenue.

Mr. Bowring also gave other examples, where some branches of trade have risen to a state of great prosperity in different parts of the world, without any protection being given them. "You may take, for instance," said he, "two of the most extensive manufactures, the cotton trade in England, and compare it with the cotton trade in France; it is known that the cotton trade in England is the least protected of our trades—that it was in fact a persecuted trade in its origin; that taxation was levied upon cotton goods, in the interest of the woollen trade; that cotton manufacturers have been throughout the advocates of free trade, yet the development of that trade in England is perfectly unexampled. In France, the cotton trade is the most protected of trades; it was protected from its origin; it is only within a few years that the finest numbers of cotton twists have been admitted into France; there is an absolute prohibition on all articles of cotton manufacture except the very high numbers of cotton twists, which are used for making lace. The cotton trade has made very small progress in France, compared with the cotton trade of England; the state of cotton laborers is frequently one of very great suffering; the number of bankrupts among the cotton manufacturers of France has been great, and when the home market is glutted there is no means of relief by going to the foreign market, inasmuch as the price at which they produce, the fictitious price created by the protective system, is much higher than the prices of the nations with which they compete. The consequence is, that as a means of relief, the government have been in the habit of giving a large premium on exportation, which is another taxation levied upon the French people; they paying in the first case a much greater sum than they need pay for the cotton garments they wear; and secondly, the cost of the increased price upon the article which France exports, in order to enable her to get rid of her superfluous production."

The committee were made to understand that the increased price of all kinds of cotton goods, whilst France has the same facility as England, arises mainly from the protective duty; and that the only manufacture in France towards which a liberal system has been applied, is the manufacture of silk. Foreign cotton goods are excluded—foreign silk goods from any part of the world pay a duty of from 13 to 15 per cent; yet so sound and healthy is the manufacture of silk, upon the whole, that France is able to export four fifths of the whole of the silk goods she produces. So that while of cotton, protected in every conceivable way, the amount of her exports is trifling, and principally growing out of other circumstances, that of her superiority in taste, her exports of silks are, as before mentioned, four fifths of the whole which she manufactures.

From the knowledge Mr. Bowring possessed of the general state of trade in Europe, and in the United States, he thought that Great Britain must anticipate hostile legislation, on the ground that many countries have made representations of this character: "We are willing to adopt a sys-

tem of reciprocal modification ; and if you are not willing to meet us on that ground, we must adopt a system of further protection, and even of prohibition."

It appeared to Mr. Bowring, that the British tariff has been established without any regard to a general principle ; that it is not protective in all its bearings, and that it is not made most productive to the revenue. That it is not protective, as the tariffs of France, Spain, Austria, and Russia are, of which the object is to exclude all foreign manufactures. That there are some duties that are productive, while there are others that are not, and that there is no general policy, no comprehensive end or object running through the English tariff as a system. He thought that the interests of protection and the interests of revenue are frequently incompatible ; and that one of the two ought to be made the object of customhouse legislation, which should be simplified, even beyond the simplification of the Prussian tariffs. If some ten or twelve articles, in which there is no competition with the home producers, were made the main objects of taxation, and upon those articles the highest duty imposed which could be recovered, and if then all other imports were left free, he thought that would be the wisest and most beneficial system of legislation that could be adopted.

Mr. Bowring spent a considerable time in Spain, and watched the operations of the high and prohibitive duties in that country, where, perhaps, the protective system has been pushed to its greatest extent, and where exports are in so low a state, and where commerce and manufactures probably suffer more than in any other kingdom in Europe. He stated that he had frequently travelled with smugglers, and had seen the way in which their goods are conveyed from one part of the country to the other, sometimes by fraud and sometimes by force ; that the laws are completely inefficient wherever the recompense to the contrabandist is large, or where the difference of price is considerable, between the price in Spain and the price in the producing country ; that exclusively of the demoralizing effect, the revenue of that country had been considerably diminished from what it would have been if the goods had been admitted at a moderate duty ; and that the only parts of the country where there had been any thing like a general prosperity, are the parts in which the prohibitory customhouse legislation had not been introduced. The Biscayan provinces having a fiscal legislation of their own, have always resisted the authority of the general government to impose prohibitory laws upon them ; and the contrast in the condition of the people in that country and every other part of Spain, is remarked by all who travel through that country. The condition of the ports of Spain, and the general misery of the people, is mainly attributable to their bad commercial system ; the grass grows in the streets at this moment in their principal commercial places.

In speaking of the unequal taxation in different continental countries, and the heavily taxed labor of England in competing with the more lightly taxed, or untaxed labor of foreign countries, Mr. Bowring remarked that "wages are only one element in the cost of production ; and it is quite clear that we have not the greatest advantages where we pay the lowest rate of wages, for in many cases the competition is strongest with foreign countries. Where we produce to the most advantage will frequently be found to be where we pay the highest wages ; and the reason is obvious—the low rate of wages in this country exists principally where labor is bought in its rudest shape, where there is very little skill, as in the

case of the hand-loom weavers ; and this labor, where there is little skill, is placed in competition with the whole world : it is a species of labor which is everywhere purchasable, and all production which is bought in the region where this labor is applied for general competition, must be in a perilous state. Those of our manufactures are most successful in which we obtain the greatest aptitude and the most intelligence from the laborer, and in these our great superiority is found over other countries. For example, the pacha of Egypt has chosen to be a great manufacturer ; the price he pays to his laborers in the cotton manufactories he has established, is thirty paras a day, which is less than two pence ; that is the price now fixed in the manufactories of Egypt. He has the advantage of having the raw material, probably at two-thirds of the price that is paid here, it being grown upon the spot ; besides that the manufacturers choose for the manufactures of the pacha the superior qualities, before the general supply is sent down to the markets for exportation. Notwithstanding this advantage of having the raw material so cheap, and having labor at a price so incredibly low, he cannot compete with the manufactures of England ; and wherever English goods come in contact with the Egyptian, they are found to be cheaper. So in the regions of Syria, where the rate of wages is from four to five shillings a week, the Syrian articles compete successfully, and frequently drive out the Egyptian, though it would appear, if the question of wages were the only question, that the Egyptian must have a great advantage over them. The question of the amount paid for rude labor is not so important a one as it is believed to be.

“The least instructed laborer can everywhere produce certain rude manufactures ; the consequence is, that those manufactures will be very badly paid for. All those laborers, in fact, who are employed in producing those common fabrics must necessarily be in a very bad condition, because they find competing labor in every part of the world : the way to benefit their condition is not by protecting them by legislation, but by extending the field of demand for labor, by increasing their manufacturing aptitude, and directing their attention to labor of a more productive and better compensated character.”

Mr. Bowring was in favor of adopting the plan of introducing, on all articles which yielded but a small amount of duties, what is called by the French *droit de balance*, that is, a duty on registration, to repay the expense of machinery for obtaining correct statistical returns. He thought it important to British manufacturers, who have to compete in foreign markets, that every article required by them in the process of the manufacture, should be landed from the ship into the warehouse with as little delay, and at as little expense as possible. “Such facilities,” said he, “always increase trade ; I may mention the fact, that there are two ports in Italy which are free ports, in one of which the transfer of goods is very much facilitated, and in the other very much impeded : the trade of Leghorn has greatly increased under the free system ; and that of Genoa, though nominally a free port, has continued stationary under the restricted system. The great facility connected with the warehousing of goods has been among the main causes of the prosperity of the Hanse Towns.”

At the conclusion of Mr. Bowring's examination, he expressed it as his opinion, if the corn laws were repealed, that the first effect would be, that the fluctuations of prices would be very much diminished ; that there would be a considerable rise on the continent, and some fall in England ; that

there would be on the continent a re-direction of capital to agricultural objects, which is now being devoted to manufacturing purposes; that there would be a considerable increase of trade, and a demand for labor, and a very great increase in the consumption of corn in England, probably equal to the whole amount with which foreign countries would be able to supply them.

ART. IV.—ILLINOIS, AND ITS RESOURCES.

ALTHOUGH the preponderance of wealth and power in the United States still lies east of the Alleghany mountains, yet it is abundantly evident that the true elements of our future greatness and glory are centred in that vast and fertile valley which stretches from the Alleghanies westward to the Rocky mountains. This magnificent valley includes about two thirds of the entire territory of the United States; contains more than a million and a quarter of square miles; and is capable of sustaining a population of one hundred and fifty millions of souls. There is, probably, no part of the globe of equal extent which has so small a proportion of waste land and so great an amount of soil fit for cultivation. It is not only the garden of America, but of the world, and M. de Tocqueville, the French tourist and philosopher, declares it to be "the most magnificent dwelling-place prepared by God for man's abode."

This immense valley, at least six times as great as the whole of France, and ten times larger than the island of Great Britain, is watered by rivers which have been formed on the same scale of vastness and grandeur. These, taking their rise in the mountains on either side, meander through the rich plains below for hundreds, and, in some instances, for thousands of miles, until they lose themselves in that ceaseless flood which rolls along the bottom of the valley, called, in the pompous language of the natives, Mississippi, or the Father of Waters. The Mississippi rises in latitude forty-eight, amid the frosts and snows of the wintry north, and having coursed its devious way for three thousand miles, discharges itself into the Mexican Gulf, in the region of perpetual summer. In the course of its wanderings it receives the waters of no less than fifty-seven large navigable rivers, which, with their tributaries, distribute fertility and beauty throughout the valley, and cross it in such a variety of directions, that there is not a spot, unless it be in the great plains of the Upper Missouri, that is more than one hundred miles from some navigable stream. In this great congregation of confluent waters are many rivers of the very largest class. The Missouri sweeps away from the base of the Rocky mountains for more than three thousand miles; the Arkansas has a course of fifteen hundred; and six others wind their way among the rich bottoms and rolling prairies for about a thousand miles. Besides these great rivers and their lesser confluent waters, the country is everywhere crossed by rivulets starting from springs and fountains, which gradually swell into larger streams, and bend their way among the lesser valleys towards the ceaseless flood which is ever rolling its turbid waters to the ocean.

This great valley has been naturally enough divided by Darby into four sections. That portion which lies below the mouth of the Ohio, possessing

peculiarities of surface, soil, and climate, is called the lower valley ; and that which lies above this point, the upper valley. The country watered by the Ohio and its branches takes the name of the Ohio valley, and that which lies along the Missouri is called the valley of the Missouri. The Upper Mississippi valley differs somewhat from all the others. It is not so low, marshy, and warm as the lower valley : it is not spread out into such immense plains as the country which borders the Missouri : and its surface is not so diversified as that which lies along the waters of the Ohio.

The head branches of the Mississippi flow from an elevated tract of table-land, abounding in marshes and small lakes, and producing a spontaneous growth of wild rice. This lofty level, which is about one thousand five hundred feet above the Gulf of Mexico, not only gives rise to the waters which glide to the south through the great Mississippi valley, but also to those which run north into Hudson's Bay, and east into the St. Lawrence. From Lake Itaska, its extreme head, the Mississippi winds along through many deviations towards the south, and after passing through a succession of lakes and rapids for about seven hundred miles, is precipitated down the falls of St. Anthony. Ten miles below the falls it receives one of its largest branches, the St. Peters, from the west, and a little further down, another, the St. Croix, from the east. From these points, until it reaches the northern borders of Illinois, a distance of some two hundred and fifty miles, it curls among a multitude of islands, which in the summer are clothed so densely with forest trees, grass, and wild flowers, as often to prevent the eye from reaching the opposite shore. The land on the borders of the stream breaks into bluffs, which are divided by valleys and creeks, and clothed to the summit with the same splendid verdure as the islands, while the ravines below abound with crystals of quartz, carnelians, and other precious stones.

The valley of the Mississippi presents everywhere the most indubitable proofs of a diluvial formation. "Nowhere," says M. de Tocqueville, "have the great convulsions of the globe left more evident traces : the whole aspect of the country shows the powerful effects of water, both by its fertility and by its barrenness. The waters of the primeval ocean accumulated enormous beds of vegetable mould in the valley, which they levelled as they retired. Upon the right shore of the river are seen immense plains, as smooth as if the husbandmen had passed over them with his roller. As you approach the mountains, the soil becomes more and more unequal and sterile : the ground is, as it were, pierced in a thousand places by primitive rocks, which appear like the bones of a skeleton whose flesh is partly consumed. The surface of the earth is covered with a granitic sand, and huge, irregular masses of stone, among which a few plants force their growth, and give the appearance of a green field covered with the ruins of a vast edifice. These stones and this sand discover, on examination, a perfect analogy with those which compose the arid and broken summits of the Rocky mountains. The flood of waters which washed the soil to the bottom of the valley, afterward carried away portions of the rocks themselves ; and these, dashed and bruised against the neighboring cliffs, were left scattered like wrecks at their feet."

These evidences of a diluvial formation are scarcely less marked on the eastern side of the great river. From the summit level, which gives rise to the Mississippi, and forms the brim of the great lakes to the south point

of Illinois, including the Wisconsin, and the states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, appears once to have been a great plain, with a gradual inclination to the two great rivers which form its borders. The ravines and valleys appear to have been gradually scooped out by the abrasion of the waters, while those points which presented greater resistance to their influence still remain, and constitute the bluffs which so often diversify the scenery on the margins of the rivers.

The state of Illinois, which forms the southwestern portion of this slope, extends from the mouth of the Ohio upwards along the east side of the Mississippi for 380 miles, with an average width of about 150 miles, and an area, including a small portion of Lake Michigan, of 59,000 square miles, being larger by about thirteen hundred square miles than the state of New York. On the south it extends to 37 degrees of north latitude, and on the north reaches to 42½ degrees. Its southern extremity is consequently nearly on a parallel with Richmond, Virginia, and its northern with Albany, in the state of New York. In consequence of this great extent from north to south the climate is various, but there is little essential variation in the inexhaustible richness of its soil, whether it sinks into "bottoms," rises into "bluffs," or spreads into "prairies" or "barrens."

It will be seen by a glance at the map, that its situation is exceedingly favorable to a commercial intercourse with the surrounding states. The Mississippi meanders along its western border for 700 miles: the Ohio washes it on the south: and on the east it lies against Lake Michigan and the Wabash. Besides this very extensive water communication along its borders, its interior is also traversed by several large navigable rivers. The Illinois, which is formed by the junction of the Des Plaines and Kankakee, two rivers which gather their head waters within a few miles of Lake Michigan, sweeps through the state in a southwesterly direction, and joins the Mississippi a few miles above the mouth of the great Missouri. It is navigable for steamboats at a moderate stage of water to Peru, a distance of more than 200 miles, without reckoning the windings of the channel in navigation; from which point the Illinois and Michigan canal, 100 miles long, connects it with Lake Michigan, thus opening to a great portion of the state a market through the lakes and Erie canal to New York. Rock river rises in Wisconsin, and after traversing the northwestern part of the state, empties into the Mississippi above the 41st degree of north latitude. It is navigable, with the exception of one or two obstructions in the shape of rapids, for near 200 miles. The Kaskaskia, another large river, waters the southern part of the state, and enters the Mississippi about midway between the Missouri and Ohio. The Muddy is still further south, and also discharges its waters into the Mississippi. The large streams on the eastern side of the state are the Iroquois, a tributary of the Kankakee; the Vermillion, emptying into the Wabash; and the Embarras and Little Wabash, both of which also find their way into the Wabash. Besides these are many smaller streams, crossing the country in every direction, some of which, particularly at the north, afford a valuable water-power for propelling machinery.

These extensive channels of intercommunication have been still further extended by artificial means. The public authorities commenced a system of internal improvements, some years ago, on an extended scale, which, although checked for the present by the embarrassments under which the state is laboring, will doubtless ultimately be completed, making every

part of the state accessible, and opening to the great markets of the Union the inexhaustible productions of the rich interior. Among these the most important is the Illinois and Michigan canal, connecting, as we have already stated, the waters of the Illinois river with those of the lake. It was commenced as a state work in 1836, and congress, to advance its construction, contributed every alternate section of land on each side of the canal, the value of which, when the work is completed, will, it is thought, more than defray the expense of construction. The work is still in progress, notwithstanding the embarrassments of the state, and will probably be completed in the course of the next two years. It passes through a region of inexhaustible fertility, and when finished will give a powerful stimulus to the producing interests of the state. It is a curious fact, strongly indicative of the character of the country, that this canal, the length of which is about one hundred miles, will be supplied with water for the greater part of this distance from Lake Michigan. A vast number of other works equally practicable and important have been projected, and some of them commenced, but are now in a state of suspension, and cannot be again resumed with any prospect of success until the resources of the state are called into requisition, and its population considerably increased.

The general surface of Illinois is level or only moderately undulating.* The northern and southern portions are broken and somewhat hilly, but no part of the state is traversed with mountains, or even ranges of hills. At a few miles distance from the bed of the rivers the land often rises into "bluffs" from fifty to one hundred and fifty feet in height, intersected by ravines, beyond which is an extended surface of table-lands, divided into "prairies," "barrens," and forests. The low lands lying between the bluffs and the margins of the rivers are called "bottoms," and have been formed by the alluvial deposits of the streams.

These "*bottoms*" constitute the richest land in the west. The soil is often twenty-five feet deep, and when thrown up from the digging of wells, produces luxuriantly the first year. The most extensive and fertile tract of this description of soil is what is called the *American Bottom*, commencing at the mouth of the Kaskaskia, on the Mississippi, and extending northward to the bluffs at Alton, a distance of ninety miles. Its average width is five miles, and it contains about 288,000 acres. The soil is an argillaceous or a silicious loam, according as clay or sand happens to predominate in its formation. This tract, which received its name when the Mississippi constituted the western boundary of the United States, is covered on the margin of the river with a strip of heavy timber, having a thick undergrowth, from half a mile to two miles in width, but from thence to the bluffs it is principally prairie. It is interspersed with sloughs, lakes, and ponds, the most of which become dry in autumn. The land is highest near the margin of the stream, and consequently when overflowed retains a large quantity of water, which is apt to stagnate and throw off miasma, rendering the air deleterious to health. The soil is, however, inexhaustibly productive. Seventy-five bushels of corn to the acre is an ordinary crop, and about the old French towns it has been cultivated and produced successive crops of corn annually for more than a hundred years. Besides the American Bottom, there are others that resemble it in its general char-

* This account of the surface and soil of Illinois is mostly condensed from Peck's *New Guide to Emigrants*.

acter. On the banks of the Mississippi there are many places where similar lands make their appearance, and also on the other rivers of the state. The bottoms of the Kaskaskia are generally covered with a heavy growth of timber, and are frequently inundated when the river is at its highest flood. Those of the Wabash are of various qualities, being less frequently submerged by the floods of the river as you ascend from its mouth. When not inundated they are equal in fertility to the far-famed American Bottom, and in some instances are preferable, as they possess a soil less adhesive.

These bottoms, especially the American, are the best regions in the United States for raising stock, particularly horses, cattle, and swine. The roots and worms of the soil, the acorns and other fruits from the trees, and the fish of the lakes, are sufficient to subsist and fatten the swine; and the horses and cattle find inexhaustible supplies of grass in the prairies and pea vines, buffalo grass, wild oats, and other herbage in the timber during the summer, and rushes in the winter. The soil is not so well adapted to the production of wheat and other small grain as of Indian corn. They grow too rank, and fall down before the grain is sufficiently ripened to harvest. They are also all, or nearly all, subject to the very serious objection of being unhealthy.

A large part of Illinois consists of the lesser prairies, which spread out between the creeks, rivers, and timber lands, being mostly undulating, dry, and extremely fertile. They are, however, sometimes level, and in other cases wet. In the southern part of the state they are small, varying in size from those of several miles in width to those which contain only a few acres. As you advance to the north they widen and extend on the more elevated ground between the water-courses, and are frequently from six to twelve miles in width. Their borders are by no means uniform. Long points of timber often project into the prairies, and points of prairie project into the timber between the streams. In many instances there are copses and groves of timber embracing from one hundred to two thousand acres in the midst of the prairies, like islands in the ocean. This is a common feature in the country between the Sangamon river and Lake Michigan, and in the northern parts of the state generally. The lead mine region, especially, abounds with these groves. These prairies are devoid of timber, and are covered with rank grass, over which the fire annually sweeps, blackening the surface, and leaving a deposit of ashes to enrich the soil. The tough sward which covers them, effectually prevents the timber from taking root; but when this is destroyed by the plough, the surface is soon covered with a thick growth of timber. There are large tracts of country in the older settlements, where thirty or forty years ago the farmers cut their winter's supply of hay, which are now covered with a forest of young and thrifty timber. The prairies have a rich, productive soil; are generally favorable to the preservation of health; and are well adapted to all the various purposes of cultivation.

Another kind of land which abounds in this state is called, in the dialect of the west, "*Barrens*." In the early settlement of Kentucky, the inhabitants, observing that certain portions of the country had a dwarfish and stunted growth of timber scattered over the surface or collected in clumps, with hazel and shrubbery intermixed, inferred that the soil must necessarily be poor, and hence called these tracts *barrens*. It was, however, soon ascertained that, so far from their being barren, they were really among the

most productive lands in the state. The name has, however, been retained, and received a very extensive application throughout the west. In general, the barrens of Illinois have a surface more uneven or rolling than the prairies, and which more frequently degenerates into ravines and "sink-holes." They are almost invariably healthy; have a greater abundance of pure springs, and possess a soil better adapted to all the purposes of cultivation and the different changes of seasons than either the bottoms or prairies. They are covered with wild grass, and with oak and hickory trees and shrubs, which are scattered over their surface, and are gnarled and dwarfish, in consequence of the repeated fires which sweep over them; but when these are stopped, healthy sprouts shoot up from the mass of roots which have accumulated in the earth, and grow with amazing rapidity, so that the want of timber on these tracts can easily be supplied.

What is called *Forest or Timber Land* also abounds in Illinois, but is very unequally distributed over the state. Where the prairie predominates timber is, of course, a desideratum, but as it shoots up with great strength and rapidity as soon as the soil is broken by the plough, this circumstance does not prove a bar to the settlement of the country. The kinds of timber most abundant are oaks of various kinds, black and white walnut, ash, elm, sugar maple, honey locust, hackberry, linden, hickory, cotton wood, pecan, mulberry, buckeye, sycamore, wild cherry, box, elder, sassafras, and persimmon. In the southern and eastern parts of the state are yellow poplar and beech; near the Ohio are cypress; and on the Calamich, near Lake Michigan, is a small tract covered with white pine. The undergrowth consists of red-bud, pawpaw, sumach, plum, crab-apple, grape vines, dog-wood, spice-bush, green brier, hazel, &c. For ordinary purposes, there is now timber enough in the state without resorting to artificial cultivation.

The more uneven portions of the country are divided into *knobs*, *bluffs*, *ravines*, and *sink-holes*. *Knobs* are ridges of flint limestone intermingled and covered with earth, and elevated one or two hundred feet above the common surface. They are of little value for cultivation, and have a thin growth of dwarfish trees like the barrens. The steep hills and natural mounds that border the alluvions have obtained the name of *bluffs*. Some are in long parallel ridges, others like cones and pyramids. They are sometimes formed of precipices of limestone rock from fifty to one hundred feet high. The *ravines* are the depressions formed between the bluffs, and often leading from the prairies down to the streams. *Sink-holes* are circular depressions of various sizes, from ten to fifty feet deep, and from ten to one hundred yards in circumference. They frequently contain an outlet for the water received by the rains, and indicate a substratum of secondary limestone.

There are but few tracts of ground in the state where loose stones are scattered over the surface or imbedded in the soil, and these are chiefly in the northern part. There are, however, quarries of stone in the bluffs, along the ravines, and on the banks of the streams. The soil throughout the state is mostly porous, easy to cultivate, and exceedingly productive. There are no mountains; no ranges of hills; but few ledges; and only a small amount of irreclaimable wastes of any kind in the state. Its capabilities of production are therefore immense, and probably greater than those of any other state, comparing area with area.

Among the products of the soil, grapes, plums, crab-apples, wild cherries,

persimmons, pawpaws, black mulberries, gooseberries, strawberries, and blackberries, are indigenous, and grow wild in great profusion. Of the cultivated fruits, apples, pears, quinces, peaches, and grapes, thrive well, and can be raised in abundance. The cultivated vegetable productions of *the field* are Indian corn, wheat, oats, barley, buckwheat, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, turnips, rye, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, the castor bean, &c. *Maize*, or *Indian corn*, is the staple. No farmer can live without it, and many raise little else. It is cultivated with great ease; produces ordinarily fifty bushels to the acre; often seventy-five; and not unfrequently reaches even to a hundred. The number of bushels raised in 1839 amounted to twenty-two and a half millions. Wheat is a good and sure crop, especially in the middle part of the state, and in a few years Illinois will probably send immense quantities to market. The number of bushels raised in 1839 was 3,263,552. Hemp grows spontaneously, but is not extensively cultivated. Cotton is raised in the southern part of the state, and in 1840, 200,000 pounds were produced. 30,000 pounds of rice were gathered in the same year, and 2,591 pounds of hops.

The *stock* of the farmer consists principally of horses, neat cattle, swine, and sheep. Horses are more used here than in the eastern states. They do much the greater proportion of the ploughing, and off from the stage routes the travelling is chiefly performed on horseback. The number in the state in 1840 was, according to the returns of the United States marshal, 200,741. Illinois possesses fine grazing lands, and raises for market considerable quantities of beef, which is sold in the western states. In Alton alone, 5000 beeves were killed during the past winter, prior to the first of February. The number of *neat cattle* in the state was, in 1840, 612,244. *Pork* is one of the staples, and thousands are produced almost without trouble or expense, as they are raised on the fruits and nuts which grow wild in the woods. Near 70,000 were slaughtered in Alton last fall, and in the whole state the number, as returned by the marshal, is 1,445,925. *Sheep* have not been hitherto raised in very great numbers, but the flocks of the Illinois farmers are rapidly increasing, and the number in the state now amounts to 486,751. *Poultry* are raised in great abundance. Ducks, geese, and other aquatic birds, visit the lakes and streams during winter and spring, and prairie hens (grouse) and quails are very numerous, and are taken in great abundance.

But the resources of Illinois do not stop with her large and navigable rivers; the inexhaustible fertility of her soil; or the abundance of her animal and vegetable productions. She is also rich in *minerals*. Coal, secondary limestone, and sandstone, are found in almost every part of the state. Iron has been found in the south, and is also said to exist in considerable quantities in the north. Marble and granite are found in several counties, and the quantity quarried in 1839, amounted in value to \$71,778. Copper has been found in small quantities on Muddy river, and in the bluffs of Monroe county; and in greater abundance on the Peekatonokee, near the northern boundary of the state. Crystalized gypsum has been discovered in small quantities in St. Clair county, and quartz crystals in Gallatin county. Gold is found in Jo Daviess and Fulton counties, from which gold was produced in 1839 to the amount of \$5,250. Silver is also supposed to exist in the vicinity of Silver creek, and in early times a shaft was sunk here by the French, and it is said that large quantities of this metal were obtained.

But of all the mineral productions of the state *lead* is the most abundant. In the northern part of Illinois and the territory adjacent, are the richest lead mines hitherto discovered on the globe. They lie principally north of Rock river and south of the Wisconsin, but some have also been found on the west side of the Mississippi. For many years the Indians and French traders were accustomed to dig lead in these regions; but they never penetrated much below the surface. In 1823, the late Col. James Johnson, brother to the Hon. Richard M. Johnson, obtained a lease of the United States government, and made arrangements to prosecute the business of smelting, which he commenced with considerable energy the following year. This enterprise attracted the attention of other capitalists, and in the course of three or four years, this sequestered spot literally swarmed with miners, smelters, merchants, speculators, and gamblers of every description, until, in 1829, the lead business was entirely overdone, and the market for a while destroyed. Since that time, however, the business has revived, and continues to be profitable. The supply exists over a tract of country about two hundred miles in extent, and appears to be inexhaustible.

In 1839, the United States marshal found twenty-three smelting-houses, principally in the county of Jo Daviess. The capital invested in the business was \$128,600, and the quantity of lead produced 3,546,000 pounds. The government received six per cent of the lead produced for rent. The following table, from Peck's Gazetteer of Illinois, exhibits the amount of lead made in this region from 1821 to September 30, 1835.

Pounds of lead made from 1821, to Sept. 1823,	335,130
do. for the year ending Sept. 30, 1824,	175,220
do. do. do. 1825,	664,530
do. do. do. 1826,	958,842
do. do. do. 1827,	5,182,180
do. do. do. 1828,	11,105,810
do. do. do. 1829,	13,344,150
do. do. do. 1830,	8,323,998
do. do. do. 1831,	6,381,900
do. do. do. 1832,	4,281,876
do. do. do. 1833,	7,941,792
do. do. do. 1834,	7,971,579
do. do. do. 1835,	3,754,290
Total,	70,420,357

The *coal* of Illinois is of the bituminous character, and lies principally in the ravines and points of the bluffs. Exhaustless beds are found in the bluffs of St. Clair county, bordering on the American Bottom, and large quantities are carried across to St. Louis for fuel. There is, however, scarce a county in the state in which it does not abound. The quantity dug in 1839 was over 376,000 bushels.

Common salt (muriate of soda) is also found in various parts of the state, held in solution in the waters of the springs, and the manufacture is carried on in several counties to a considerable extent. The springs and land are owned by the state, and the works leased. During the last year more than 20,000 bushels were produced, principally in Gallatin and Vermillion counties, and the supply can be increased to any desirable extent.

The *manufacturing* interests of Illinois are still in their infancy, but the time is not distant when its manufactories will cope with those of the older states. Steam mills for flouring and for sawing timber, have been erected in the southern and middle portions of the state, and are rapidly increasing in number: while mills driven by water-power are in operation at the north. It is worthy of remark, too, that in those portions of the state not supplied with a constant water-power, coal and wood for fuel abound. The best water-power is found in the northern part, and it has already been improved to a considerable extent. Mills for various purposes have sprung up along the streams, particularly along Rock river and its branches, and the Illinois and Fox rivers. The Illinois and Michigan canal also furnishes an admirable water-power, superior probably to any other in the west. The rapids in the Fox river, four miles above Ottaway, have a descent of sixteen feet, and an abundant supply of water at all seasons of the year, while, from the rapids down, the river has such a descent as will enable its waters to be used for propelling machinery. The improvements on the Great and Little Wabash, and the Kaskaskia, will also make the waters of those streams available for hydraulic purposes, and whenever mills shall be required there is nothing to prevent their rapid multiplication. In 1839, the number of flour, grist, and saw mills, was 1,502; and the value of manufactured products, \$2,306,619.

Education. The same provision has been made by congress for the support of schools in Illinois as in the other new states. The public lands are surveyed into townships six miles square, containing 36 sections, of 640 acres each, and the section numbered *sixteen*, in every township, is given to that township for educational purposes. Besides this provision, which applies only to the local townships, three per cent of all the public lands within the state, sold, or to be sold, after its admission into the Union in 1819, are to constitute a fund for the support of education; under the direction of the state authorities, provided that one sixth is to be exclusively devoted to the support of a college or university. Two entire townships, or 46,080 acres, have also been bestowed for the support of education, which, with a moiety of the surplus money divided between the states, constitutes a fund which is estimated at about three millions of dollars, a large portion of which, however, will long be unavailable. The interest which resulted from the education fund in 1839, and which was divided according to the law, was \$44,326. But the state lacks a well organized system of common schools, without which education can never generally prevail.

Besides several respectable academies, there are in this young state six institutions which take the name of *colleges*, viz: Illinois College, at Jacksonville, under the direction of the "new school" Presbyterians; McDonough College, at Macomb, belonging to the "old school;" Shurtleff College, at Alton, which takes its name from Dr. Shurtleff of Boston, who made it a munificent donation; McKendree College, at Lebanon, St. Clair county, belonging to the Methodists; and Canton College, in Fulton county, and Belvidere College, in Winnebago county, two new institutions which have only recently been chartered. But notwithstanding this great show of literary institutions, it will probably be found that education languishes in Illinois, as indeed it does in most new states. The foundation which is laid, however, in the prospective education fund, is of great importance, and we may confidently expect that the intellectual resources of this vast and beautiful region will ere long be as abundant as its physical.

The following particulars are derived from a tabular statement prepared by J. A. Townsend, of Alton, Illinois :

	Quantity.	Value.
Population,*	476,273	
Horses and mules,	200,741	\$9,033,345
Neat cattle,	612,244	9,183,640
Sheep,	486,751	973,502
Swine,	1,445,925	1,337,775
Poultry,		340,600
Wheat,	3,263,552	2,039,720
Barley, buckwheat, and rye,	49,366	76,470
Oats,	5,681,931	1,136,386
Corn,	22,523,630	4,504,727
Wool, (pounds)	634,349	285,457
Beeswax, (pounds)	26,676	6,669
Potatoes,	2,086,516	521,629
Hay, (tons)	138,125	1,005,000
Flax and hemp,	15,604	1,560,000
Tobacco,	475,250	28,515
Sugar,	399,713	49,964
Wood, (cords)	124,138	248,276
Dairy, (value of produce)		445,621
Orchards, (value of produce)		118,132
Domestic goods,		1,108,096
Garden and nurseries		97,996
Stores,	1,374	
Stores, (capital invested in)		5,085,457
Skins, ginseng, &c.		258,838
Bricks and lime,		262,406
Carriages and wagons,		135,712
Flour, grist, saw, and oil mills,	1,502	
Flour, &c. (manufactured)		2,306,619
Brick and frame houses, (built in 1839)	4,020	
Houses,		2,044,108
Tanneries,	154	
Sole and upper leather, (sides)	68,808	223,118
Saddleries, (products)		255,252
Distilleries, breweries, &c.	153	
Distilleries, breweries, (products, No. of gals.)	1,554,109	388,195
Manufactures, (not enumerated products)		361,522
Manufactures, (not enumerated capital)		338,195
Manufactories, total amount of capital,		3,969,912
Total value of products, exclusive of capital and cost of buildings,		51,811,606
No. of persons employed in mining,		1,227
“ “ agriculture,		97,781
“ “ commerce,		2,523

* For a statement of the population of each county in the state of Illinois, taken at the census of 1840, and the number of square miles in the several counties, see Merchants' Magazine for October, 1841, page 391.

No. of persons employed in navigating the ocean,	75
“ “ navigating rivers and lakes,	85
“ “ learned professions,	1,931
No. of deaf and dumb,	311
“ blind,	80
“ insane and idiots,	200
“ colleges, 7	No. of students, 311
“ academies, 41	“ “ 1,907
“ common schools, 1,200	“ “ 33,724
“ students at public charge,	1,318
“ white persons over 20, who cannot read and write,	28,780
“ pensioners,	155

ART. V.—DUTCH COMMERCE.

DUTCH TERRITORY AND POPULATION—SYSTEM OF COMMERCE—IMPROVEMENTS OF AGRICULTURE—MANUFACTURES—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—NAVIGATION—DUTCH AT THE HEAD OF EUROPEAN PROGRESS—GENERAL SOCIETY OF COMMERCE OF THE LOW COUNTRIES—ITS CHARACTER AND COMMERCIAL OPERATIONS—RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF MANUFACTURES IN HOLLAND, ETC.

THE following official report on Dutch commerce, was recently addressed to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, by M. Bois le Comte, French Minister at Hague. Exhibiting, as it does, a clear and comprehensive view of the present condition of Dutch commerce, from an authentic source, it will be found not only interesting to our commercial readers, but valuable for reference :

“ When I exposed to the predecessor of your excellency what remained to Holland of its ancient maritime and commercial power, I tried to establish, by official calculation, the political influence and the produce of her colonies. I am to complete this work with the assistance of the results obtained during the year 1839, and the documents presented to the States General in 1840.

“ The same uncertainty continues as to the real state of the population of those colonies. The Dutch Government itself has but approximate and vague valuations in this respect. M. Beau gives the number of the population of Java as eight millions, but he reduces that of the other islands in a great degree, by the observation that culture and social organization alone can produce a great development of population. As to Sumatra, I should prefer to his estimations, which are evidently too low for that island, those of MM. Vanden Bosch, de Capelle, and Nahuys, who give the number of its population as five or six millions ; but nothing contradicts his opinion that the population of Borneo does not exceed three millions, that of the Celebes two millions, and the Moluccas 500,000. This would give twenty millions of inhabitants to a territory three times as large as France, the half of which is governed by the Dutch themselves, or by princes named and directed by them.

“ In the Dutch Indies there are 10,000 Europeans, including the army, and 30,000 negro slaves. By emigration, partly permanent and partly

periodical, there are about from 200,000 to 300,000 Chinese in the Dutch Indies, of whom 100,000 are in Java alone, men who are both useful and dangerous—brokers, retailers, artisans, and cultivators; they perform every service which requires most intelligence and activity. At Java they manage plantations of cane and tea; at Sumatra that of pepper; at Riow that of palm trees;* at Gamba and at Banca, the working of the tin mines; and at Borneo that of the gold mines.

"The English *census*, in 1815, gave the number of the population as 4,500,000. The population has doubled in fifteen years from the increase of health in the population, and from the disappearance of the small-pox, which made as much ravage in Java as the plague in Turkey, or the yellow fever in America.

"No change has taken place in 1839 as to the general system of commerce. The ports before named in each of the islands receive foreign vessels, the Moluccas alone are forbidden theirs; the Government, which has reserved to itself the purchase of spices, keeps up the monopoly of opium and salt. Strangers are allowed to establish themselves in the ports open to commerce. It is forbidden to penetrate into the interior. Three *entrepôts* in the island of Java (Batavia, Samarang, and Sourabaya,) and two free ports, one at the northern extremity of the Neerlandish Archipelago, and the other at the southern, Riow and Coupang, complete the system.

"The improvements of agriculture commenced by Count Vanden Bosch have not only been realized, but exceeded by the harvest of this year. I here annex the statements of the exportation of Java in 1838. I compare it with that of 1790, under the old company, and with that of 1828, under the government which preceded that of M. Vanden Bosch.

"The separation of Belgium, where the industry of the United Low Countries had been concentrated, caused the metropolis to despair of taking part in the provisioning of her colonies of 1830. King William has succeeded in conquering the difficulty, and in reviving the manufacturing industry of Holland, and in enabling the Dutch to furnish the Javanese with their cotton stuffs, which are their principal articles of importation from Europe. Thus this branch of commerce has doubled in the space of ten years, and yet the European manufacture has not destroyed native industry at Java, as it has been the case in the Indies. The population of Java, itself supplied in a great measure from Europe, sends to the other islands two millions' worth of linen of an inferior quality. Cloth and silk, which are only made use of for the clothing of priests and princes on days of ceremony, are very little bought in these possessions. The total amount of the importation of Java in 1839 was eighty millions of francs: forty-five millions coming from Holland, thirteen and a half millions from England, 876,000f. from France, 1,300,000 from Hamburg and Sweden, a million from the United States, and the rest from Asia.† The exportations have

* "The *Hague Gazette* denies that the Chinese cultivate pepper at Sumatra, or the palm at Riow. It is the gum called *terra japonica* which M. Bois le Comte must have mistaken for the produce of the palm.

† "According to the official statement of the commerce of Java, in 1839, the total of importation was 68,000,000 of francs, of which about—

32,000,000f. from Holland.

8,000,000f. " England.

700,000f. " France.

900,000f. " Hamburg, Sweden, Denmark, and Bremen.

600,000f. " America.

26,000,000f. " The Cape of Good Hope, Bengal, and the rest of Africa.

risen to 136,800,000f. ; 100,820,000f. for Holland, 4,300,00f. for France, 1,000,000f. for Sweden and Germany, 2,050,000f. for the United States, and the rest for the Asiatic countries.* They consist of few natural products, but of great value.

	Kilogrammes.	Value in franca.
Coffee	46,934,000	50,565,000
Sugar	54,500,000	23,738,000
Rice	68,000,000	9,941,000
Indigo	596,000	7,578,000
Tin	2,975,000	5,057,000
Nutmegs and cloves .	553,000	4,707,000†

“I beg your excellency will permit me to illustrate these figures by a few points of comparison :—

		From the Metropolis.
The possessions of the English company import	175,000,000f.,	of which 67,000,000f.
The possessions of the English government import on an average	462,000,000	“ 215,000,000
The French colonies imported in 1838	75,000,000	“ 65,000,000
The Spanish colonies in 1838	176,000,000	“ 34,000,000
The Portuguese colonies in 1836	24,000,000	“ 1,300,000
The Island of Java in 1839 .	80,000,000	“ 45,000,000
The Dutch colonies of America in 1839	80,000,000	“ 7,000,000

“ The commercial relations of Sumatra, and of the other islands in the Sound, carried on in a great measure by the natives, cannot be estimated here ; a part entering Java, from thence to pass into Europe, contributes to increase the commerce of this island.

		For the Metropolis.
The possessions of the English company export	295,000,000f. of which	80,000,000f.
The possessions of the English government export	562,000,000	“ 387,000,000

* “ According to the same document, the exportations in 1839 amounted to about 120,000,000f.

81,000,000f. for Holland.

4,000,000f. “ England.

1,600,000f. “ France.

1,200,000f. “ Denmark, Sweden, Hamburg, and Bremen.

200,000f. “ Spain, the Isle of France, Bengal, China, Japan, &c.

23,000,000f. “ The Indian Archipelago.

† “ According to the official statements, the exportations of 1839 consisted of the following articles :—

	Value.
Coffee.....	46,781,729 kilogrammes 48,000,000f.
Sugar.....	53,839,114 “ 23,000,000f.
Rice.....	68,144,634 “ 9,500,000f.
Indigo.....	588,764 “ 7,500,000f.
Tin.....	2,941,723 “ 4,800,000f.
Spices.....	563,303 “ 4,700,000f.
Divers articles.....	23,000,000f.

The French colonies have exported		For the Metropolis
in 1838	88,000,000	of which 80,000,000
The Spanish colonies in 1838	156,000,000	" 34,000,000
The Portuguese colonies in 1836	31,000,000	" 9,000,000
The Island of Java in 1839 . .	136,000,000	" 110,000,000
The Dutch possessions of America	15,000,000	" 15,000,000

" The tonnage of the vessels which transport these exchanges is taken at their entering port as well as their leaving it :—

For the possessions of the English company at	1,050,000 tons, of which	For the Exchanges with the Metropolis.
The possessions of the English government	6,373,000	" " 2,162,000
The French colonies, in 1838 . .	770,000	" " 421,000
The Spanish colonies, in 1838 . .	1,044,000	" " 274,000
Java, in 1839	546,000	" " 105,000
All the Dutch Indies, in 1840, Java included	272,000	" " 272,000
The Dutch possessions of America in 1839*		40,000

" Thus the navigation and commerce of Holland derive from the island of Java alone almost equal advantages with those obtained with the navigation and commerce of England from the vast Indian continent and its hundred million of inhabitants. The exchanges made between England and the Indies amount to 147,000,000 francs. Those of Holland with Java amount to 146,000,000 francs. The navigation between the Indies and England occupies 214,000 tons ; that between Java and Holland occupied, in 1839, 195,000 tons, and in 1840 more than 220,000. These results have been brought about by the combination of two ideas. One of them is political—the substitution of labor for impost, and the position of protectors assumed by the Dutch over the relations of the natives with each other ; the other is commercial, being the formation of the general society of commerce.

" The Dutch boast of having been at several epochs at the head of European progress, and of having given birth to the great improvements afterward adopted by other nations. It is they who gave the example of those companies, commercial and sovereign at once, imitated by other countries in the Indies. The first constitution of the Dutch East India Company was purely commercial. During the seventeenth century it continued the same, and accumulated wealth. In 1698, it had 102,000,000*l.* of profit. But this money was soon spent when the company had to provide for the expenses of the wars necessary to consolidate and extend its territorial empire. At the end of the eighteenth century it had a debt of 252,000,000 of francs, with 5,540,000 francs interest.

" The Dutch government then thought that the system of this company was superannuated, that its exclusive character and political power did not answer the state either of opinion or of things. It refused, in the year

* "The importations of the American colonies of Holland in 1839 did not amount to more than from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 of francs, the greater part coming from the metropolis."

1795, to renew the privileges of the society, took the debt upon itself, and opened its possessions to the commerce of both the Dutch and the foreigner; yet reserving to the former divers advantages by its regulation of the customhouse. These advantages were found insufficient, and the preponderance which the English drew, from the superiority of their capital and of their navigation, had given them the supply of the Dutch colonies.

“ A law of the 29th of March, 1819, authorized the establishment of the General Society of Commerce of the Low Countries. According to its statutes, the association is to exist till the 31st of December, 1849. The proprietors of four shares, at least, (each share is worth 1,000 florins,) represent the whole society, and form its legal body. This body is divided into six electoral colleges, or is united into one general assembly, which, during the latter years, consisted of about three hundred voting members. The electoral college of Amsterdam, and that of Rotterdam, choose, among the possessors of at least seven shares, four commissioners; those of Dordrecht, of Leyden, of Middelburg, and the Hague, name each one; the king names a third, who presides over the assembly of commissioners. This commissioner is permanent; the others are renewed every year by one fourth. The commissioner, together with the three directors, form the council of the society. The first of the three directors is president of the direction of the council of the general assembly, and of the society. He is named by the king, without any candidateship; the other directors are also named for the first time by the king; but when one of their places becomes vacant, the council present to the king, in order to fill it up, a list of candidates chosen among the possessors of more than twenty-five shares. The direction forms the executive power of the society; makes contracts, buys, sells, receives, keeps, distributes the revenues, names and dismisses those employed. The council holds each year a session, which opens on the first Monday of May; it receives the accounts, and makes a statement of the affairs; it makes regulations, and gives instructions; these regulations and instructions are to be submitted to the approbation of the king. The general assembly has no periodical meeting; when the resolutions to be taken deviate from the articles first agreed upon, the council calls an assembly, after having obtained the king's consent. The directors are forbidden to accept any public office, or to take part in any commercial enterprise. Their shares, as well as those of the commissioners, deposited as surety, can be confiscated, in case of any infraction of the laws of the society. The directors receive a salary, and these salaries are very large for an economical nation. The president gets 25,000f., the directors 17,000f., and each of them has besides one half per cent from the general dividend, six francs per league for the expenses of travelling, and twenty-one francs a day for being present during the session. King William has kept the General Society of Commerce as a merely commercial company, without any right of government or exclusive privilege. The India company had ministers at Java, an army, and a fleet: the society has but a factory there, composed of a president and two members. It cannot possess land, for it is obliged to overlook the culture of all the land. As it can only make use of the ships made by the Dutch, and belonging to them, it cannot possess any itself. In order that its large freights may be fairly distributed among the Dutch, the company has no vessels of its own, but employs the shipping of the Dutch ports in such proportions that Amsterdam has $\frac{1}{4}$, Rotterdam $\frac{1}{4}$, Dordrecht $\frac{1}{4}$, and Middelburg, also, $\frac{1}{4}$.

Those employed by government deliver the produce at Java to the factory ; the society is to transport it into Holland according to a fixed price ; this price was, in 1839, twenty-eight centimes per kilogramme of coffee, and twenty-three centimes per kilogramme of sugar. The Dutch government would increase its revenue one third by selling the produce of Java in Java, but then the aim would not be attained. Dutch navigation must be kept up by the transport of the produce, and the produce must be brought to Holland, in order that Holland may remain the great market. The result of this arrangement has answered the largeness of those views which dictated them. When the society was established, the Dutch flag only transported half the produce of their Indies, and now it transports all.

“ In the year 1838 alone, the society freighted upwards of 140 vessels, of 100,000 tons burden, and shared amongst the proprietors a salary of 16,532,000f. In 1839, the tonnage of the vessels freighted was of 116,000 tons, and in 1840, of 138,000 tons. Such encouragement rendered the premium given by government for the building of vessels superfluous. It has been enabled to spare this expense ; and, in spite of the suppression of the premium, the work upon the docks is more active than ever in all the Dutch ports. During the year 1839, 123 vessels, of 39,918 tons, have been built. Holland and Belgium united only possessed, in 1826, 1,176 vessels, of 148,000 tons burden ; on the 1st of January, 1840, Holland alone possessed 1,528 vessels, of 270,000 tons burden, all built at Java, and belonging to the colony. The society has engaged, since 1839, to take and keep a naval apprentice for every 200 tons, yearly ; so that each year from 600 to 700 young men are formed for navigation.

“ Whilst the society thus increased the national marine, it also gave to Holland that manufacturing industry so long flourishing, and so lately ruined, by the weight of taxes, and the dearness consequent upon them.

“ The re-establishing manufactures in Holland seemed an impossible undertaking ; what manufacture could have risen above the expense of its first establishment, and support the expense of the apprenticeship of a population unaccustomed to the work ? King William saw this obstacle ; but he thought that once it was surmounted, the Dutch manufactures could occupy and give a livelihood to the mass of poor to whom the want of cultivable land leaves deprived of work, and at the charge of the treasury. The king then inserted in the charter of the society, the express stipulation that it should make use of Dutch produce for exportation, unless this could not be procured at a reasonable price ; and interpreting this expression himself, he caused the society to make engagements with the manufactures which were to be established upon the faith of its orders ; and supporting these operations by the customhouse tariff, by the power of the company, and by all the protection of the political authorities, and at the same time erecting manufactories on every point of the kingdom, he took away the supply of Java from England. In 1824, the Dutch manufacturers sent out to Java 430,000f. worth of cotton stuffs, and the English manufacturers 5,400,000f. worth. In 1839, the Dutch sent out to Java 15,484,000f. worth of cotton stuffs, and England 6,850,000f. worth.* By

* * The importation of national cotton stuffs at Java in 1839, was of about 15,000,000 francs, and that of English cotton of 5,000,000. But the cotton thread, which is made use of in the manufactures of Holland, comes almost all from England. The annual value of English cotton thread thus employed being 5,000,000 francs, this sum is to be

bringing upon the market of Java an association provided with so great a superiority of means, and supported by all the power of government, the king was establishing a regular monopoly. He nevertheless took care to avoid this evil. Any operation of an exclusive character was forbidden to the society by its statutes. Foreigners continue to bring their merchandise to Java, and to buy the produce of the soil; only they find another competitor, and this competitor governs the market by the power of its capital. The Dutch, whether individual commercial houses or the society, are also favored by the dispositions of the tariff, which exempt from duty the produce exported by Dutch ships, and which reduces, for Dutch merchandise, the general duty of importation from 25 per cent to $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Under this new condition about fifteen Dutch houses, and six or eight English, French, and American houses, still remain at Java. These houses kept, or sent to foreign countries in the year 1839, 5,000,000 florins' worth of coffee, 3,000,000 florins' worth of sugar, and 8,000,000 florins' worth of rice. They received from foreign countries, and distributed in the island, 20,000,000 of florins' worth of merchandise, one fourth of the importation of Java. The society, in its purchases, its sales, and in the mode of its transports, making its interest subordinate to the general interests of the country, has realized such considerable profits, that it has been under the necessity of reducing them, and has just consented to diminish the advantage of its contracts with the state. In 1838 and 1839, its dividend was $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, besides $4\frac{1}{2}$ in reserve, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent interest, in all $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The dividend of the bank of London has never exceeded 10 per cent.

"The society, increasing its capital as it extended its operations, has raised the former to 97,250,000 florins. The possession of this capital ranks it among the number of the great commercial associations which exist in the world; the capital of the Bank of Amsterdam is 20,000,000 of florins; that of the Bank of France 90,000,000 millions; and that of the Bank of England 260,000,000. King William Frederic possesses himself 20,000,000 of the capital of the society.* After having regulated the statutes, he had guaranteed to his associates an interest of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. During two consecutive years, 1827 and 1828, he realized his guarantee, and paid from four to five millions of francs interest. The abdication of King William Frederic has been for the society a crisis from which it is not yet extricated. It is not yet known what power this prince preserves as an individual in an association of which he remains the guarantee and the principal shareholder. The situation of the new king with regard to this association is not yet determined. Every one seems particularly stricken with the abuses which have resulted from the dependence of the society upon the crown, and look to the cessation of this dependence for more surety to the public finances, and more liberty to commerce; but perhaps it will not be long before the absence of this superior power will be felt, which caused to converge towards the same action the services of

deducted from the number of the importation of Dutch cotton stuffs, and to be added to that of the English importation. The share of English industry in the importation of cotton stuffs to Java, in 1839, was thus about 10,000,000 francs, and that of the Netherlands 10,000,000 francs also.

"* This seems incorrect. By the 14th article of the royal decree of March 29, 1824, King William Frederic became security for himself and his family for a sum of 4,000,000 of florins in the capital of the company."

the state and the operations of commerce, which combined the establishment of a manufacture in Over Issel with the cultivation of a field at Java, and the levying of a tax with the success of a commercial speculation. What is truly great in this creation, made and conducted by King William, is, that by it the true policy came to dominate in both the fiscal spirit of the treasury, and the mercantile spirit of a company. It would be melancholy and pernicious to see a divorce between the government and the company, the one looking to economy, the other to profit. Both aims would be missed by the separation."

ART. VI.—TOWNSEND'S ICE-BREAKER.

To the Editor of the Merchants' Magazine :

PERMIT me, dear Sir, through your widely circulating journal, to lay before the public the plan of an invention which, if successfully applied, will prove one of the most valuable discoveries of modern times. It is comprised in a machine, constituted of a cylinder armed with teeth, and revolved by means of a steam-engine, which is designed to advance upon our rivers and bays, and to break a channel through the ice during the winter, thus affording a free track for steam navigation in that season. The inventor is Mr. Jacob Townsend, a respectable and practical mechanic of the city of New York, who has devoted much time and expense to the instrument, and already taken out a patent. The advantages resulting from the success of his invention would be scarcely second to those of the application of steam to the propulsion of vessels by Mr. Fulton, for it would nearly double the benefits that are now derived from this agent, by extending its operation to the whole year, it being now obstructed by the ice through a considerable part.

It seems extraordinary that in our own age, when the agent of steam enables us to create and apply almost an indefinite amount of power to so many various objects, the simple operation of breaking so soft a material as that of ice has never been successfully effected, and the benefits that would flow from its accomplishment should scarcely cause us to regret any ordinary sacrifices that we might make for the attainment of the desired end. The plan of the ice-breaker of Mr. Townsend has been carefully examined by scientific and practical men, who have expressed their decided conviction that it promises to be effective in attaining the anticipated object. The instrument thus invented by Mr. Townsend, is earnestly commended to the attention of the patriotic and liberal-minded men of our large cities, as well as those of the country. While I am well aware that our patent office in Washington exhibits, in its numerous unsuccessful models which are there deposited, the offspring of many a furrowed brow and sleepless night, melancholy evidences of disappointed, nay, blasted hopes ; does that fact present any good reason why an invention of so much importance, that promises reasonable success, should not be aided by the public support, in order that the experiment may be fairly tested ? For my own part, I conceive that the establishment of a joint-stock company for that direct purpose, would be the most favorable mode of advancing the success of this invention—an invention whose value will scarcely be deemed visionary when backed by the names of the well-known gentlemen who have

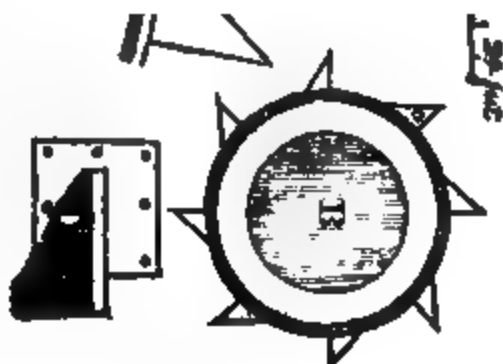
attested the feasibility of the object, and whose operations are shown by the description of the instrument, and the mathematical demonstrations which are here subjoined.



The following description of the Ice-breaker is given in the Report of the Committee on Arts and Sciences of the Mechanics' Institute :

The committee are of opinion, that the invention offered for their consideration by Jacob Townsend, presents a combination of effective forces sufficient to easily break the ice formed in our bay, and the rivers emptying into it, during a winter of ordinary severity ; and that by a proper application of power to the machine, its progress through ice may be increased to such an extent as to make it a valuable invention. The full scope of its usefulness, however, will be better ascertained by experiment, as is the case with all inventions, and more especially those in which an application of mechanical laws is intended to counteract an irregular operation of natural laws.

DESCRIPTION. A is a cylinder, with its periphery and ends armed with strong iron, hooped, and wedge-shaped



teeth, D. This cylinder may be made of wood, in the usual manner, and have the teeth fastened on its periphery by means of strong iron hoops bending over flanges cast upon the base of the teeth ; or it may be formed entirely of iron, cast in rings or zones, and united in a manner similar to iron water-pipes. This cylinder is suspended horizontally in front of the boat, by an arrangement that permits of its being raised or lowered at pleasure. H, arms enclosing the gudgeons of the cylinder, and attached to the sides of the boat by strong iron bolts. G, a beam supporting the yokes or stirrups in which the arms rest. K, a chain band to communicate motion to the cylinder, passing over spurs on the cylinder and a cogged ring on the spur wheel. The arrangement of the teeth on the cylinder, as represented in the engraving, is spiral.

I think you will agree with me, Sir, that the advantages flowing from this successful experiment can scarcely be overrated. A free navigation between New York and Albany, and through the other channels of water-communication to the port towns along our seaboard, and in the interior, would throw a new aspect over the commercial condition of the country, and add greatly to the productive power of the people and the wealth of the nation. As New York is entitled to the credit of the discovery of steam navigation, so also, let New York be instrumental in the first successful establishment of steam navigation throughout the year. With the hope that my few remarks may direct the attention of all who are interested in commerce to the invention of Mr. Townsend, I subscribe myself,

Sir, yours very respectfully,

FULTON.

ART. VII.—LAWS RELATIVE TO DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

NUMBER XII.

DEBTOR AND CREDITOR IN ILLINOIS.*

Suits in Illinois for the recovery of debts, are commenced either by *summons, capias, or attachment.*

BY SUMMONS.

By this mode, the debtor is simply summoned to appear on the first day of the next term of the court, to answer the complaint of his creditor, and his person or property are thereby, prior to judgment, in no wise affected.

BY CAPIAS.

A *capias*, requiring bail for the debtor's appearance at court, may be issued when the plaintiff or other credible person who can ascertain the sum due, or damages sustained, will make oath that the same will be in danger of being lost, or that the benefit of whatever judgment may be obtained will be in danger, unless the defendant be held to bail. If the requisite bail is not given on arrest, the defendant must either procure a discharge, as is provided by the insolvent act, or stand committed until the sitting of court.

* Prepared for the Merchants' Magazine, from the Statutes, by Charles Gilman, Esq., of the Quincy, Illinois, bar.

BY ATTACHMENT.

A writ of attachment may be issued against resident debtors, when any creditor or his agent shall make complaint on oath, or affirmation, to the clerk of the Circuit Court, that his debtor is about to depart from the state, or has departed therefrom, with the intention in either case of having his effects and personal estate removed without the limits of the state, or stands in defiance of any officer authorized to arrest him on civil process, so that the ordinary process of law cannot be served; and, also, that such debtor is indebted to such creditor in a sum exceeding twenty dollars of lawful money of the United States, specifying the amount and nature of such indebtedness. Before the attachment is issued, in addition to this oath, a bond, with approved security, executed by the party, his agent or attorney, payable to the defendant in double the sum claimed to be due from defendant to plaintiff, conditioned for satisfying all cost which may be awarded to the defendant, in case plaintiff is cast in the suit, and also all damages which shall be recovered for wrongfully suing out such attachment, must be also filed with said clerk. This attachment reaches all and singular the lands and tenements, goods and chattels, rights and credits, moneys and effects of what nature soever, in whosoever hands or possession the same may be found, and whose names are inserted in the writ as garnishees.

The jurisdiction of justices of the peace, in cases of attachment, extends to the sum of fifty dollars.

If the debtor is a non-resident, and cannot personally be served with process, and has any estate, real or personal, within the state, such estate may be reached by attachment as is herein before provided.

If two or more persons not residing in the state, are jointly indebted, an attachment may be issued against their separate and joint estate, on the oath, or affirmation, of non-residence, particular residence, and indebtedness of such debtors.

A creditor who is absent from, or a non-resident of the state, may have an attachment against the estate of his debtor, upon his agent or attorney making the requisite oath, and filing a bond as in other cases.

In all cases by attachment or otherwise, if the plaintiff is a non-resident, a bond or obligation for costs, signed by some responsible person residing within the state, must be filed prior to the commencement of the suit.

Whenever more than one attachment shall be issued against the same defendant, and returned to the same term of the court to which they are returnable, or where a judgment in a civil suit shall be also rendered at the same term against the defendant, who is the same person and defendant in the attachment or attachments, each attaching and judgment creditor will receive in proportion to his respective demand.

When suits have been commenced by summons, an attachment in aid thereof may be issued at any term pending such suit, upon the filing of the proper affidavit and bond.

In cases of attachment of real estate, the officer serving the process is required to file a certificate of the fact with the recorder of the court where such land is situated, and from and after such filing, the levy takes effect as to creditors and *bona fide* purchasers without notice.

Judgments, in all cases, create a lien on real estate, from the last day of the term of the court in which the same may be rendered, for the pe-

riod of SEVEN YEARS, if execution thereon be issued within one year from the time of rendition.

The following articles of personal property are exempted from attachment and execution, viz: for every person being the head of a family, and residing with the same, one milch cow and calf, the wearing apparel of himself and family, necessary bed and bedding, one spinning wheel, and a pair of cards, provisions not more than sufficient for the support of the family three months, and the necessary utensils for cooking, and necessary household furniture, not exceeding in value fifteen dollars, and sixty dollars worth of property suited to his occupation and condition; and for every single person, his wearing apparel, and necessary military arms and accoutrements.

The plaintiff may elect on what property he will have execution levied, except the land on which defendant resides, and his personal property, which shall be last taken in execution. All property so taken on execution issuing on a judgment rendered, and founded on any contract entered into prior to the first day of May, A. D. 1841, must be valued and appraised by three householders on oath, before it can be sold, which valuation and appraisal must have reference to its cash value; and when offered for sale, if no person shall bid two thirds of said valuation, it shall not be struck off.

IMPRISONMENT FOR DEBT.

Whenever any debtor shall refuse to surrender his estate, lands, tenements, goods or chattels, for the satisfaction of any execution issued against his property, the plaintiff, his agent or attorney, on making affidavit of such fact before any justice of the peace, and filing the same with the clerk of the court from which the execution issued, or with the justice who issued it, is entitled to an execution against the body of the debtor.

The debtor when arrested on *mesne process* or execution, may go before the probate justice of the peace, and if he desire, be allowed a jury of seven householders of the neighborhood, who shall be sworn to try the fact of refusal to surrender the property of such debtor for the benefit of his creditors; if the jury find a verdict of "guilty of such refusal," then the debtor is required to surrender his property, or make a schedule, as hereinafter mentioned; but if their verdict is "not guilty," he shall then be discharged from arrest.

If the debtor does not claim such a jury, he must make a full, fair, and complete schedule of all his property of any and every description, or kind, name, or nature, whatsoever; together with a true and perfect account of all the debts which he may owe at the time, which schedule must be subscribed by the debtor, who shall also take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation, to wit: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that the schedule now delivered, and by me subscribed, contains, to the best of my knowledge and belief, a full, true, and perfect account and discovery of all the estate, lands, tenements, hereditaments, goods, chattels, and effects, unto me in any wise belonging, and such debts as are unto me owing, or unto any person or persons for me, or in trust for me, and of all securities and contracts, whereby any money may become due or payable, or any advantage or benefit accrue to me, or to my use, or to any person or persons for me, or in trust for me; that I have not lands, money, or any other estate, real or personal, in possession,

reversion, or remainder, which is not set forth in this schedule: nor have I, at any day or time, directly or indirectly, sold, lessened in value, or otherwise disposed of, all or any part of my lands, money, goods, stock, debts, securities, contracts, or estate, whereby to secure the same, or to receive, or expect to receive, any profit or advantage therefrom, to defraud any creditor, or creditors, to whom I am indebted in any wise whatsoever; and also, that this schedule contains a true and perfect account of all the debts which I owe to any and every person whatsoever."

Any creditor of such debtor has the right to appear before the judge of probate, and contest the truth of the schedule; if, after a full investigation and fair examination of the debtor and witnesses, if any, it shall appear to the judge that the proceedings on the part of the debtor are fair, just, and honest, he shall appoint an assignee of the debtor, and the debtor shall immediately, by endorsement on said schedule, assign all, or so much of his property as the judge may deem sufficient to pay all the debts, interest, costs, and charges in the schedule mentioned, to said assignee.

When the debtor shall produce to the judge the receipt of the assignee, that he has received all the estate, &c., so assigned to him, the judge is then required to give the debtor a discharge in writing from imprisonment, which discharge shall exempt the debtor from arrest on account of any debt mentioned in said schedule, until the same shall be vacated by the due course of law.

An appeal to the Circuit Court is allowed to either party who may think himself aggrieved by the discharge of, or a refusal to discharge the debtor, on entering into the bond required by law.

The assignee of any insolvent debtor is required to make a settlement of the insolvent's estate before the judge of probate, within eighteen months after the date of the assignment, giving thirty days notice of making such settlement; and the judge shall make such order of distribution, as is made in cases of deceased persons, and the assignee shall pay the creditors their dividends within thirty days after such settlement, if all the debts have been collected.

Any debtor who shall be convicted of taking a false oath under any of the provisions of the Insolvent Act, shall be deemed guilty of perjury.

PROMISSORY NOTES, &c.

Promissory notes, bonds, due-bills, and other instruments in writing for the payment of money or articles of personal property, are made assignable by endorsement thereon, in the same manner as bills of exchange are.

Every assignor of any such instruments is liable, as such, if the assignee shall have used due diligence by the institution and prosecution of a suit thereon against the maker. If the institution of such suit would have been unavailing, or the maker had absconded, or left the state, when such instrument became due, the assignee is entitled to recover against the assignor, as if due diligence by suit had been used.

RATE OF INTEREST.

Six per cent is the legal rate of interest in Illinois, subject, however, to the provision that a higher rate of interest may be received, when an express contract has been made.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

United States Circuit Court.—Before Judge Thompson.—April term, 1841. One hundred and twenty-three packages of Glass. Barclay and Livingston, claimants, *vs.* The United States.

Thompson, J. This case comes up on a writ of error, from the district court for the southern district of New York: an information was there filed under the fourth section of the act of congress of the 28th of May, 1830, (8 vol. J. W., S. 340.) claiming a forfeiture of the goods in question upon an allegation, that the invoice was made up with intent, by a false valuation, to defraud the revenue of the United States; alleging that the goods were charged in the invoice, at a less price than they *actually cost* the importer. The information also contains an allegation, that the goods having been procured otherwise than by purchase, the same were charged in the invoice at a price less than their *actual value* at the time and place when and where procured.

The claims interposed by the claimants, allege that the goods were *bona fide* the property of Booth & Co. of Sunderland, in England, manufacturers, and were sent out and consigned to the claimants for sale. That an entry was duly made, and invoice produced and left with the collector, and denying that such invoice and entry were made with intent to defraud the revenue.

From these allegations in the pleadings, it appears that the entry was made by the claimants as consignees of Booth & Co., who were the manufacturers and owners of the goods; so that the inquiry upon the trial could not involve the *actual cost* of the goods, they not having been purchased; but must have turned upon the *actual value* of the articles. The case comes upon a bill of exceptions taken at the trial.

The district attorney gave in evidence, the entry made by the claimants as consignees of Booth & Co. upon the oath of Schuyler Livingston, and the production of the invoice and bill of lading. The district attorney also read in evidence, an affidavit annexed to the invoice, made by one John French, one of the firm of Booth & Co., as evidence that they were the manufacturers of the glass in question, which affidavit stated that they were the true and lawful owners of the goods, and that he and his partners were the manufacturers, and that the nett prices charged in the invoice were the current value of the same at Sunderland.

The district attorney then introduced Abraham B. Mead, one of the appraisers, and other witnesses, who appraised the goods at the time and place of importation at a higher value than that stated in the invoice.

On the part of the claimants, testimony taken under a commission was introduced, to show that the fair market value of the goods at the time and place of importation was according to the prices stated in the invoice. Among other witnesses, James Riche swore, that he knew the shipment in question and the invoice thereof, (a copy of which was annexed to his deposition,) and which exhibits the fair market value of the articles at Sunderland, at the date of the invoice. That his knowledge was gained by occasionally selling goods in Booth & Co.'s warehouse, and by having access to their books at all times. James Wilson was then called as a witness on the part of the claimants, who swore that for two years and a half last past he had been conversant with the importation and sales of glass ware from the Tyne river and its vicinity. And the claimants then offered to prove by this witness the selling price of glass of this kind in New York, and what would be market price at Sunderland, in order to yield a profit here. This inquiry was objected to, and excluded by the court, and the admissibility of such inquiry is one of the questions that has been made in the case, and the only one relating to the admissibility of evidence. The affidavit annexed to the invoice was introduced on the part of the United States, and the force and effect of it, and the light in which it was considered

by the court, in the charge to the jury, will depend on other considerations than the admissibility of the evidence.

I do not see on what grounds this inquiry, offered to be made of Wilson, was improper or irrelevant. Had the goods in question been *purchased* in England, the *actual cost* might have been proved, and would perhaps have been the evidence required. But the issue was as to the real or market value of the article at the date of the invoice. And this was a point not susceptible of absolute certainty in proof, but was to be made only by circumstances, and depending in some measure upon the opinion of witnesses. The selling price in New York was certainly not entirely irrelevant. It contributed in some measure to aid an opinion upon the actual or market value of the article at the place of exportation. It is not to be presumed that an importation would be made at a valuation upon which a loss must be sustained, according to the selling price, in the market here. It was evidence of the same character as that given on the part of the United States, by the appraisers. That testimony could be no more than mere matter of opinion, derived from their acquaintance with the article, and their knowledge of the market price here and in England. And it was precisely the inquiry that had been made of Thomas D. Moore, a witness on the part of the United States. And although made on a cross-examination, it was made without objection, nor do I perceive any objection that could have been made. The opinion of the appraisers as to the foreign cost or market value of the goods, is undoubtedly, under the revenue laws, *prima facie* evidence of the fact, and unappealed from may be conclusive evidence as to the amount of duties, but certainly cannot be conclusive upon the question of forfeiture. It must undoubtedly be rebutted by clear and satisfactory evidence. The weight to which it is entitled, when compared with the evidence on the other side, is to be weighed by the jury, who are to decide whether the inventory was made up with intent to defraud the revenue. I think, therefore, that the inquiry offered to be made of Wilson was improperly excluded.

The other question in the case relates to the affidavit annexed to the invoice. This was introduced on the part of the United States, and the inquiry respecting it grows out of the charge of the court. The judge instructed the jury, "That the affidavit accompanying the invoice was not to be looked to by them at all as evidence in the case. That it was not taken as evidence, was given without the presence of the adverse party, or any notice to him, was a voluntary affidavit of the party in his own behalf, and was merely a customhouse document, required to accomplish the entry. That it was not a judicial oath on which the party could be indicted, and was no higher evidence than the invoice itself, or a letter of the party, and that the claimants were not entitled to any presumption in their favor as to its verity, or to the benefit of any doubt, so far as this allegation of the claimant is concerned."

I cannot view the affidavit annexed to the invoice in this light. It was evidence introduced on the part of the United States, and was of course before the jury for some purpose. And if it was properly before the jury, it was their province to decide upon the weight of it. And they could not be instructed by the court not to look to it at all. It was not, to be sure, taken as evidence in a cause pending in court, and which would require notice to the other party, but it was a voucher required by law to accompany the invoice, and could not be considered merely as the voluntary oath of the party, but as evidence of the verity of the invoice, not conclusive, but still adding some sanction to the invoice. It can hardly be supposed that the government would require an affidavit to be annexed to an invoice, and at the same time considered it of no force or effect whatever. It was the voucher required by law, and upon which the goods would be admitted to an entry, unless objected to by the collector, upon the ground of a false and fraudulent valuation. It can form no objection that the party could not be indicted for perjury. This arises from want of jurisdiction of the case in our courts. Had the affidavit been taken here, and is false, the party might have been indicted for perjury. If the affidavit was no higher evidence than the invoice itself, it is not easy to understand why the

act of congress should have required it to be superadded to the invoice ; it must certainly have been intended to give it some additional sanction. Admitting the seventy-first section of the act of 1799, (3 vol. L. U. S. 200,) to be in force and applicable to the case, it does not call for the view taken of the affidavit in the court below. That act only declares that if upon the seizure, the property shall be claimed by any person, the onus probandi shall lie upon such claimant, but that such onus probandi shall lie on the claimant only where a probable cause is shown for such prosecution.

The evidence of the appraisers was undoubtedly sufficient to make out the probable cause, and to throw upon the claimants the onus of proving the valuation of the article as stated in the invoice, and that must be shown by testimony satisfactory to the jury; but it determines nothing with respect to the kind of evidence necessary to establish the fact. Had the goods in question been purchased, it would have been in the power of the claimants to show the actual cost. And if that had not been done, it would have afforded a strong inference against them ; such evidence being in their possession or within their power ; but not presumed to be in the possession or within the power of the United States. But that principle does not apply to the present case. The inquiry here was as to the real or fair market value of the article, and this did not depend upon any private knowledge in the possession of the claimants ; but upon matters of public information equally open to the United States as to the claimants.

The cases referred to upon the argument, where a construction had been given to the onus probandi, required on the part of the claimants under the seventy-first section, do not apply to the case now before the court. The inquiry in those cases was as to the *actual cost* of the goods. This was a fact susceptible of positive proof within the power of the claimant ; and its non-production, or not accounting for its absence, was a kind of negative evidence which ought to have great weight in the case. I cannot, upon the whole, concur with the district court in the view taken of the affidavit annexed to the invoice. It was an authentication of the invoice required by law, and was in evidence before the jury, and the weight to be attached to it was for them to decide. The judgment of the district court must therefore be reversed.

MARITIME ASSAULTS.

On the trial of an action brought by a seaman against the mate of a vessel, for an assault and battery, on the admiralty side of the district court of the United States, Judge Hopkinson gave his opinion of suits of this description—he said :—

In action by a mariner for his wages, in which he seeks for nothing but a remuneration for his labor, and the owner or master of the vessel endeavors to deprive him of it by an allegation of a forfeiture, or to make deductions by charges of misconduct, I hold the respondent to strict proof, and require of him to show clearly, a good and sufficient cause for the defence. I will not defeat such claim and take from the man his hard earnings, for services which have been rendered and received, for unimportant acts of disobedience or rude and impertinent language, unless it be of a very gross character or dangerous to the discipline of the ship, and subordination of her crew ; faults which such men as seamen commit without any serious design of insubordination or insult, but which masters and mates, not unfrequently as rough as their men, are fond of calling *mutiny*, to resist a demand for wages. We do not look for the manners of a drawing-room on board of a ship, nor should we punish as an assault and battery those violations of the pride or person of a sailor, which in another class of men must be repressed or they would lead to mortal consequences. While, therefore, in a suit brought by a sailor for his wages, I would make every reasonable presumption to protect him from loss ; on the other hand, if he brings his officer here for an assault upon him, to which he is frequently instigated by bad advisers on shore, I reverse the proceeding, and require of him to make out a clear case, by credible and consistent proof. I throw the burden

on him, with no disposition to favor frivolous complaints, or encourage such litigation. It is not enough to show on the part of the officer, coarse and threatening language, it is the idiom of the sea, "signifying nothing;" nor even a rash, and perhaps, unnecessary blow, for if such occurrences are to be the ground of these suits, a vessel will seldom come into port, without furnishing more or less of them. Officers will be under such an apprehension of them, that they will be unable to maintain that discipline, which is essential to the safety of all. But when I can see there has been a deliberate design to oppress a seaman, an assault upon him, to gratify some personal ill will, or indulge a vindictive temper; or where there has been a wanton and tyrannical abuse of power; or if a serious injury has been inflicted by the violence of passion, however sudden, in such cases, redress for the wrong will always be found in this court, so far as I am capable of affording it. Obedience and submission are the duty of a sailor on his voyage, and the law rewards him for them, by an ample protection against wrong, when he reaches his port, and comes within the power of the law. The weapon used by an officer for punishing a seaman, is always a subject of consideration and weight with the court.

Actions for assaults and battery were first brought in this court, since I came upon the bench. They were formerly prosecuted in the common law courts of the state, where the delay in obtaining a trial, the difficulty of having witnesses at the trial, and the heavy expense, were sufficient discouragements to prevent frivolous and vexatious suits. But the speedy trial to be had here, with little or no advance of money, where something may be gained and nothing lost, for the plaintiff cannot pay the legal costs if he is unsuccessful, has been a great encouragement to trifling complaints, and experimental suits, which are determined in few days. He may therefore venture on any chance, however desperate; he may get something; he can lose nothing. I desire to discountenance such experiments, but will freely open the door to every serious abuse of power given to the officers of a vessel to preserve her necessary discipline, and not for the indulgence of a cruel and vindictive temper, or the outbreaks of unrestrained and violent passions.

In the above case the libel was dismissed, but without costs. A short time after the above decision was made, another case occurred, in which damages were given; and the two opinions will show the ground assumed by the judge in the decision of actions by mariners against their officers for assaults.

Whitney vs. Eager.—Libel for assault and battery.—In deciding questions of this sort between the master of a vessel and his men, it has been my endeavor to preserve the ship from the danger to which she would be exposed by the refractory disobedience and turbulence of the crew, and, at the same time, to protect the crew from cruelty and unnecessary violence on the part of the master. Indeed, one of the most effectual means of securing their submission, even under ill treatment, is, that they shall be assured that they will receive redress at the end of the voyage, for any abuse of the power of the master over them. I have, in a late case, explained the principles on which my decrees are founded in such cases. I would avoid, on the one hand, encouraging frivolous and vexatious complaints, and on the other, be ready to give adequate redress for real and substantial injuries.

To maintain the necessary discipline of the ship, great power is given to the master, and obedience and non-resistance are exacted from the seamen; but the master is not, therefore, constituted an unrestrained tyrant, nor are the sailors made his defenceless victims. They are always, and everywhere, under the protection of the law, whether in the rivers of their country, or the most distant seas. They must be patient and submissive under suffering, and wait for the season of redress; when this arrives, the same power of the law which has sustained the master in his authority, will make him account for the abuse of it.

In this case there has been a clear and gross abuse of that authority, a wanton cruelty, which neither the law or common humanity can justify.

[After a careful comment upon, and examination of, the principal facts of the particular case, the learned judge continued:]

As to the *receipt* extorted from the libellant as the condition of payment of his wages, by which he was required not only to acquit the owners of any claim for wages, but to release the officers of the ship from all claims and damages, it has more than once been decided in this court, that no attention will be paid to such releases. An acquittance for the wages is the proper object and office of the receipt to be given on the payment of wages; to couple it with a release to the officers for all personal wrongs and injuries, especially when the wages are denied without it, will always be regarded as an attempt to impose upon the seaman, and as betraying a consciousness of wrong, and a design to get rid of it in this way.

I have been surprised that the owners of vessels do not give some attention, in selecting their masters, to the temper and manners of the individual.—In passenger ships, these are matters of real importance. What can be more disagreeable and distressing to passengers, than to witness, daily or hourly, the indulgence, by the master of their vessel, of a violent and cruel temper, and to hear from him coarse abuse, accompanied by vulgar swearing, in his treatment of his men.

The damages claimed in this libel are \$5000. This is probably as much as the captain would get in ten years of his life, and more than the libellant could earn in his whole life. This will not do. We must not become oppressors in our endeavors to punish and prevent oppression. We must consider the situation of both parties; and while we may imagine a case between parties in which this amount of damages would not be excessive for the same assault, it cannot be a case between the master and mariner of a ship. We must not bring distress and ruin on the one, to redress a wrong to the other, for the assault complained of, although severe and unjust, has produced no serious or permanent consequences to the libellant. It is enough that the respondent shall receive a lesson to restrain his temper, and to know that whatever his power may be at sea, a greater power is at home to call him to an account for the use he has made of it. This, with a reasonable compensation to the libellant for his injuries, will fully meet the justice of the case.

Damages decreed \$100, with costs.

THE BOOK TRADE.

1.—*The Poetry of Flowers, and Flowers of Poetry; to which are added a Simple Treatise on Botany, with familiar examples: and a copious Floral Dictionary.*

Edited by FRANCES S. OSGOOD. 12mo. pp. 276. New York: C. Riker. 1841.

This little book, edited by Mrs. Osgood, who appears to be attaining that distinction among our poets that her talented husband has already acquired in the kindred art of painting, is a striking example of the application of the fine arts to literature. We here have not only the most beautiful efforts of the intellect in delineating the poetry of flowers, which have been termed, we believe, by a German author, "the smiles of God," but the flowers themselves blooming in their natural colors upon the page. Mrs. Osgood has selected from the most distinguished authors those sentiments most appropriate to the illustration of her design, and has interspersed her own delicate poetry through those parts of the volume where they appeared most to be required. A familiar treatise upon botany, sufficiently extended to exhibit its general principles, is also embodied in the volume; together with a floral dictionary, which teaches the language of this poetry of nature. In its design and execution the present volume is one of the most exquisite that has issued from the American press, and furnishes an appropriate present for a friend, and a fitting ornament to the centre table.

2.—*Biblical Researches in Palestine, Mount Sinai, and Arabia Petrea.* A Journal of Travels in the year 1838, by E. ROBINSON and E. SMITH, undertaken in reference to Biblical geography. Drawn up from the original diaries, with historical illustrations; by EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York; author of a Greek and English Lexicon of the New Testament, &c. With new maps and plans, in five sheets. 3 vols. 8vo. pp. 571, 677, 721—in all, nearly 2000 pages. Boston: Crocker & Brewster. New York: Jonathan Leavitt.

This is no common work. We are anxious to do our part in calling the attention of our countrymen to one of the most stupendous monuments which patient research and profound scholarship have ever yet erected. Its principal laborer, Professor Robinson, was prepared for this great achievement by the whole course of his previous studies. He had besides, in Missionary Smith, the best of all guides; a man thoroughly familiar with the Arabic language, and the Syriac people; acquainted, too, with the difficulties and resources of oriental travellers; and as remarkable for his taste for geographical, as Professor Robinson for critical research. More than all, he has consecrated three years to the task, in the midst of the exhaustless treasures of learning in Germany, and aided, as a worthy companion, by her distinguished oriental scholars. No wonder a great treasure is here added to the world's literature—an invaluable geographical and historical encyclopædia for the inquirer upon Palestine, to the scanty collections in our own tongue—a splendid refutation of the charge that America does nothing for literature, to the growing achievements of her scholars in every department of science. With the humility of profound learning, Professor Robinson entitles his books "A first attempt to lay open the treasures of Biblical geography and history still remaining in the Holy Land—treasures which have lain for ages unexplored, and had become so covered with the dust and rubbish of ages, that their very existence was forgotten." But it is far more than this. Innumerable mistakes, handed down from father to son, and never suspected till now, this work has finally corrected: as it slowly becomes known, they will melt like shadows before the rising sun. We find this even in the geography, which might have been considered most accurate and certain; and still more in the history. Many points, wholly in doubt, this work has settled beyond any further question. And while we would not complain of the loaded learning and exact scholar style, we can see but one improvement of which the work is susceptible; and that is, a systematic arrangement of its contents into a physical and historical geography of the Holy Land. And this its author has now in view: may Providence bless his labors. The maps, published since the work itself, of Sinai, Arabia Petrea, Jerusalem, Southern and Northern Palestine, are the best ever given, and worthy of the masterly enterprise to which they belong.

3.—*Sermons on Important Subjects, by the Rev. Samuel Davies, A. M., President of the College of New Jersey. With an Essay on the Life and Times of the Author.* By ALBERT BARNES. 12mo. pp. 497, 556, 499. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

We learn from the publishers' advertisement, that so steady has been the demand for these sermons, that they feel the strongest confidence in presenting the Christian public with the present stereotype edition. Several editions of the work have been published in England, and this forms the fifth American. These sermons are held in high esteem by Christians of the popular faith, as presenting "vivid, fervent, and just exhibitions of the great truths" of religion, as understood by "such men as Edwards, the Tennents, and Strong, and Payson, and Dwight, and Griffin, and Bedell." The volumes contain all the published works of President Davies, besides an original introductory essay, embracing a very copious sketch of the life and times of the author, written with the force and elegance that distinguishes every thing from the pen of Dr. Barnes, one of the most learned and gifted divines of the Presbyterian Church, in this country.

- 4.—*A Dictionary, Practical, Theoretical, and Historical, of Commerce and Commercial Navigation.* By J. R. McCULLOCH, Esq. Edited by HENRY VETHAKE, LL. D., one of the Professors in the University of Pennsylvania ; Member of the American Philosophical Society ; Author of a Treatise on Political Economy, etc. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 765, 803. Philadelphia : Thomas Wardle. New York : James P. Giffing. 1841.

The practical utility of this work is too well known by the commercial public to need our commendation. It is, or should be, found in the hands of every merchant and importer in the country. Our present purpose, therefore, is simply to call attention to the American edition of Professor Vethake. This edition has been reprinted from the last English edition, and embraces the whole of McCulloch's supplement. In the additions to this work, the American editor has, for the most part, confined himself to matters relating to the United States, or of especial interest to its citizens. Considerable information of this nature will be found appended to the articles, Aliens, Banking, Credit, Liens, Cotton, Importation and Exportation, Imports and Exports, Iron, Roads, Silk, and Tariff, as well as others. Several articles have been inserted on subjects not treated by McCulloch ; such as Admiralty courts, Liverpool, London, &c. The language of Dr. Johnson, in his preface to Rolt's Commercial Dictionary, will apply with peculiar force to the edition of McCulloch before us. Though immediately and primarily written for the merchants, this dictionary will be of use to every man of business in the community. There is no man who is not in some degree a merchant, who has not something to buy and something to sell, and who does not therefore want such instructions as may teach him the true value of possessions or commodities. The descriptions of the productions of the earth and water which these volumes contain, may be equally pleasing and useful to the speculatist with any other natural history. The descriptions of ports and cities may instruct the geographer, as well as if they were found in books appropriated only to his own science ; and the doctrines of funds, insurance, currency, monopolies, exchanges, and duties, is so necessary to the politician, that without it he can be of no use either in the council or the senate, nor can speak or think justly either on war or trade. It is in fact a work which no condition of life can render useless, which may contribute to the advantage of all that make or revise laws, of all that buy or sell, of all that wish to keep or improve their possessions, of all that desire to be rich, and all that desire to be wise. The volumes are neatly printed on good paper, and substantially bound.

- 5.—*Law and Lawyers, or Sketches and Illustrations of Legal History and Biography.* In two volumes. pp. 339, 333. Philadelphia : Carey & Hart. 1841.

These volumes form a valuable compendium of facts and illustrations, showing something of the general character of the English bar. Many personal anecdotes are brought together, which are of no less interest to the public than to the members of the profession. The most distinguished characters, who formerly adorned the English bar and bench, as well as many who are now living, flit before us in their most prominent traits. We commend the work as one which should find a place in the library of every legal aspirant who desires to raise the standard of his profession, and to become acquainted with the most interesting circumstances connected with its brightest ornaments.

- 6.—*An Argument on the Unconstitutionality of Slavery ; embracing an abstract of the Proceedings of the National and State Conventions on this subject.* By G. P. F. MELLEN. 12mo. pp. 440. Boston : Saxton & Pierce. 1841.

Mr. Mellen maintains, with all the earnestness of a thorough-going abolitionist, that, "according to our constitution, it is impossible either for congress or the states to establish slavery ; that no man now is rightfully or legally held in bondage in this country ; that the whole system is unconstitutional ; and that it is in violation of its spirit and letter, and ought not to be upheld."

7.—*Pantology, or a Systematic Survey of Human Knowledge*; proposing a classification of all its branches, and illustrating their history, relations, uses, and objects, with a synopsis of their leading facts and principles, and a select catalogue of books on all subjects suitable for a cabinet library: the whole designed as a guide to study for advanced students, in colleges, academies, and schools, and as a popular directory in literature, science, and the arts. By ROSWELL PARK, A. M., Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, and member of the American Philosophical Society. 8vo. pp. 587. Philadelphia: Hogan & Thompson. 1841.

We regard this work as one of the most valuable publications which have recently issued from the American press, and alike creditable to the author and the publishers. The plan on which it is based is both novel and ingenious; uniting a complete and thorough classification of all the branches of human knowledge, with a comprehensive summary of their leading facts and principles. It is, therefore, a miniature encyclopædia, with the peculiar advantage of treating the subjects in a natural order, instead of dissecting them alphabetically; but any subject may readily be found, without remembering the system, by means of a copious alphabetical index at the end of the work. Another peculiar and important feature of this publication is, that it contains a choice list of the best books on every branch of human knowledge, arranged according to the subjects, and embracing nearly fifteen hundred works, which together would form a highly select library, and from which a further selection may easily be made. As a book of reference, for merchants and men of business, as well as professional men and students, we know of no other single volume so generally useful as Professor Park's *Pantology*. It treats of every subject of human knowledge: grammar and languages, mental and moral philosophy, and education, law and government, religion and theology, geography and statistics, history and biography, poetry and romance, mathematics and natural philosophy, natural history and medicine, machinery, architecture, engineering, and navigation, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, printing and the fine arts; showing their extent and relative importance, their connections and dependencies, while it gives a considerable amount of positive and authentic information on each one of them all. The wonder is that so many valuable ideas could be clearly expressed within the compass of a single octavo volume. The engravings are appropriate, well executed, and on subjects of popular interest, while most of them are such as would rarely be met with elsewhere. We think that every young man seeking for information, must have felt the want of such a work as this; and that Professor Park has performed a valuable service for the cause of education and morals, as well as for the diffusion of useful knowledge, in this attractive publication. We wish that this work may become as extensively known as it is meritorious and useful; and we venture to predict its entire success, as a standard and popular work for all classes of intelligent readers.

8.—*A Wreath of Wild Flowers from New England*. By FRANCES S. OSGOOD. 12mo. pp. 364. Boston: Saxton & Pierce. 1841.

A wreath of wild flowers from New England, laid before the British public, is certainly a new thing under the sun. Yet we doubt not that this beautiful wreath, entwined by a daughter of New England, has been much admired in that country, if we are to judge from the commendations of this work by the British press. It is indeed a collection of choice gems. The contents comprise a dramatic poem, and various fugitive pieces, upon as many topics. They all denote the fair authoress as a lady of decided genius, possessing a tender sensibility, a cultivated taste, and a delicate appreciation of the gentle affections, and of the beautiful in nature and art. We believe that the volume has already received the stamp of public admiration in our own country, and we hope that the writer may be induced to cull more flowers, and to entwine more wreaths, to bedeck the literature of the day.

- 9.—*Life and Times of Red Jacket, or Sa-go-ye-what-ha*; being the sequel to the History of the Six Nations. By WILLIAM L. STONE. 8vo. pp. 484. New York and London: Wiley & Putnam. 1841.

The history of the state of New York is yet to be written. It remains for some of her gifted sons to rear "that loftier monument on which, not the rays of the setting sun, but the rays of a nation's glory, as long as letters shall endure, will continue to play and linger on its summit." Within the past few years very ample and interesting materials have been provided, and are almost daily brought to light. The history of the Indian tribes—of their confederation—our colonial annals—our revolutionary struggle—the toils and privations of our border settlements—are all given in detail, and furnish those materials from which the master-builder can select when he rears his noble temple. Among the largest contributors is the author of the *Life of Red Jacket*. Amid the labor and vexations of editing a daily paper, he has found time to make extensive researches into our early history, and has given the fruits of those researches to the world. "The *Life of Brant*" has been followed by "The *Life of Red Jacket*," and now we understand the author is engaged upon the closing work of the series—the *Life and Times of Sir William Johnson*. The latter, though written last, will be the first of the series in the order of time. "The *Life and Times of Red Jacket*" is beautifully got up, is very interesting, and contains accounts of all the treaties with the Six Nations since the revolution—of the efforts made to civilize and christianize them—with stirring incidents of the last war—together with the speeches of Red Jacket himself, the great orator of the confederated tribes. We hope the work may receive that attention to which its merits entitle it.

- 10.—*The Critical and Miscellaneous Writings of Sir Edward Lytton Bulwer*. In 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1841.

We thank the publishers for this collection of gems from the periodical literature of England. Though not so able as Macauley, not so classical, not so admirable in taste, they are little less brilliant; and must be welcomed by the admirers of Bulwer throughout the land. We are surprised that the "Ambitious Student," already so familiar to the American public in another shape, should be included in these volumes; but many pieces are wholly new, all are racy and stirring, and some of them, as, for instance, that on the death of Scott, are truly magnificent.

- 11.—*The Two Defaulters; or a Picture of the Times*. By MRS. GRIFFITH, author of "Discoveries in Light and Vision," &c. 18mo. pp. 172. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

This is the first original American story embraced in "Appleton's Tales for the People and their Children." The series, our readers are aware, include contributions from Miss Martineau, Mrs. Copley, Howitt, Capt. Marryatt, and other popular writers. We therefore feel a pride, and take pleasure in expressing the opinion, that in interest of narrative and style, this faithful "picture of the times," by our countrywoman, will bear a favorable comparison with most of the series which have preceded it.

- 12.—*Gems of Irish Eloquence, Wit, and Anecdote*. By JAMES HOBAN, of the Washington bar. 12mo. pp. 316. Baltimore: James Murphy. 1841.

The compiler of this volume has gathered into a wreath the scattered flowers of Irish wit, eloquence, bravery, and truth, and bound them in their beauty around the ancient brow of Erin. From Phillips, Emmet, Plunket, Burke, Burrowes, and others, rich specimens of reasoning and soul-stirring declamation are collected. A portion of the work is devoted to incidents and matters deserving of reminiscence, in the history of Ireland and her men of eminence. Many details are also presented in exemplification of the virtue and genius of her humble and unassuming sons.

- 13.—*Manners and Customs of the Japanese, in the Nineteenth Century; from the accounts of recent Dutch residents in Japan, and from the German of DR. PH. FR. VON SIEBOLD.* 18mo. pp. 298. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is correctly remarked, that there is no people with any claims to civilization, of whom so little is known as of the Japanese. Their policy in regard to foreigners is more jealous and exclusive than that of the Chinese, the Dutch being the only Europeans allowed to trade with them, and their intercourse being extremely limited, and subject to severe restrictions. Within the last two or three years, several publications have appeared in Holland, by members of the Dutch factory, descriptive of the institutions, character, &c., of that singular people. These, however, have not been translated, and this is the first attempt to present to the American reader a compendium of the curious and interesting facts which they contain. The volume before us, from the English edition, has, we are informed, been carefully revised and corrected. It forms the 132d number of the Family Library now publishing by the Harpers, and will, we think, from the novelty of its matter, and on other accounts, be found a valuable addition to that useful collection of works.

- 14.—*The World in a Pocket-book, or Universal Popular Statistics; embracing the Commerce, Agriculture, Revenue, Government, Manufactures, Population, Army, Navy, Religions, Press, Geography, History, Remarkable Features and Events, Navigation, Inventions, Discoveries, and Genius of every Nation on the Globe. An ample Political, Commercial, Agricultural, Manufacturing, Historical, Geographical, Statistical, and General Synopsis of the United States; with the Census of 1840, and tables of the State and Presidential Elections, Interest, Usury Laws, &c. &c.* By W. H. CRUMP. 12mo. pp. 192. Philadelphia: J. Dobson. 1841.

It would seem, after giving the copious title quoted above, to be a work of supererogation on our part to present a detail of the contents of this really comprehensive and valuable collection of statistical facts. Mr. Crump, the compiler, is one of the most industrious and scientific staticians in the United States, as this little manual amply demonstrates. He has here brought together a mass of information in a small compass that must render his book a perfect *vade mecum* on all subjects of interest to statesmen, political economists, farmers, manufacturers, merchants, and mechanics, and in short, all classes of society.

- 15.—*The Motive Power of Organic Life, and Magnetic Phenomena of Terrestrial and Planetary Motions, with the application of the ever-acting and all-pervading agency of Magnetism, to the nature, symptoms, and treatment of Chronic Diseases.* By HENRY HALL SHERWOOD, M. D. 8v. pp. 196. New York: H. A. Chapin & Co. 1841.

The title of this work indicates its character; and the author has presented the subject to the reader in a plain, concise, and simple manner, divested entirely of the abstruse metaphysics in which it has been heretofore involved. Magnetism is here shown to be instrumental both in the powers of organic life, and in all planetary movements. The approximation of the earth's axis to the plane of the ecliptic, accounts, it appears, for the changes which our world has undergone, and the imbedding of ancient animals by its changes. The work is illustrated with numerous well-executed engravings, which, with the remarkable character of the subjects treated, must insure for it an extensive reading.

- 16.—*Anecdotes, Religious, Moral, and Entertaining. Alphabetically arranged, and interspersed with a variety of useful observations.* Selected by the late Rev. CHARLES BUCK. From the ninth London Edition. 12mo. pp. 507. New York: Dayton & Saxton.

This is a new edition of an interesting book, which has been out of print in this country for some years. The high estimate, hitherto placed upon its merits by the religious community, has induced the present publishers to issue a neat edition, at a price that will materially facilitate its general circulation.

- 17.—*The Book of the Seasons ; or the Calendar of Nature.* By WILLIAM HOWITT. From the Tenth London Edition. Philadelphia : Carey & Hart.

This volume, beautiful in style, sentiment, and in its mechanical appearance, is designed to promote that general acquaintance with nature, which is so highly to be desired, and for which we hope to see a growing taste evinced, in this country as in England. The plan pursued by Mr. Howitt, has been to furnish an original article on the general appearance of nature in each month, drawn entirely from his own regular observations, through many seasons, and to superadd a great variety of facts from the best sources. To these he has added a complete table of the migration of birds ; a copious list of garden plants, which come into flower in the month ; a botanical calendar, including a select number of the most beautiful or interesting British plants, and an entomological catalogue of about three hundred of the most common or remarkable insects ; a notice of rural occupations ; and, finally, one of angling.

- 18.—*Plain Sermons, by contributors to the "Tracts for the Times."* In two volumes. 12mo. pp. 336, 350. New York : J. & H. G. Langley. 1841.

These volumes contain seventy-two discourses, designed to explain and enforce the doctrines and duties of Christians, as held by a large portion of the Church of England. They come out here under the sanction of Bishop Onderdonk, of the Protestant Episcopal church in New York, who recommends them to the members of his diocese, "for private and family reading," and "authorizes the public reading of them, together with such others, as he may from time to time appoint, by lay readers within said diocese." One of the objects of the publication of these sermons in connection with the controversial "Tracts for the Times," as stated in the preface, is to bring before all persons, whether friendly or opposed to these views, that beautiful truth of the Messiah, that "if any one *will* do his will, he shall know of the doctrine, whether it be of God." An admonition which, amid so much unhappy contention and dispute, we might, many of us, be too apt to forget.

- 19.—*Ruins of Ancient Cities ; with general and particular accounts of their rise, fall, and present condition.* By CHARLES BUCK. 2 vols. 18mo. pp. 360, 360. New York : Harper & Brothers. 1841.

These two volumes form the 134th and 135th numbers of the valuable Family Library, in course of publication by the enterprising firm named in the title page. The sad memorials presented to our contemplation in the ruins of ancient cities, strikingly exemplifies the mutability of human concerns, and give a high moral value to these volumes. The author appears to have consulted, in the preparation of the work, the best authorities, and has succeeded in enriching his pages with the greatest possible variety of information ; and on the whole produced a very useful, amusing, and no doubt accurate work.

- 20.—*Anti-Popery ; or Popery Unreasonable, Unscriptural, and Novel.* By JOHN ROGERS, Member of the Society of Friends, and Counsellor at Law. With a Preface, Notes, and Index, by Rev. C. SPARRY. 12mo. pp. 315. New York : D. Fanshaw. 1841.

"This work," says Mr. Rogers, "relates to Popery, the whole of Popery, and nothing but Popery ; and therefore will," he hopes, "be acceptable, or unobjectionable to the whole protestant world, and even to the whole Christian world that oppose the plan of papal Rome." It is written in a sententious, clear, and forcible, though quaint style ; and possesses great logical precision.

- 21.—*Happiness, its Nature and Sources described, and mistakes concerning it corrected.* By J. A. JAMES. New York : D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

This little treatise comes to the reader with the high pretension, and a higher it cannot have, of pointing out what true happiness is, where it is to be found, and how it is to be obtained.

22.—*A Token of Affection—Poetry of the Heart—A Token of Remembrance—A Token of Friendship—Pure Gold from the Rivers of Wisdom.* New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

It has heretofore been considered high praise for the American publisher to equal in typographical elegance, the best works of the English press; but however startling and improbable it may appear, we have no hesitation in saying, that these four volumes of the "Miniature Classical Library," of D. Appleton & Co., are an improvement on the English edition of the same series of books. The volumes were compiled by the author of "Affection's Keepsake," and comprise the best works of our best English authors; and it may be stated, as an evidence of the estimation in which they are held abroad, that some of them have passed through eight or ten editions.

23.—*The Rose: or Affection's Gift for 1842.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. Illustrated with ten highly finished engravings: New York: D. Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 216.

It appears to have been the object of the editor, in preparing this little annual for publication, to render it directly subservient, not only to the entertainment, but to the real instruction and permanent benefit of the young. With this object in view, the pieces admitted generally possess the requisite qualities of utility as well as beauty. It is altogether a very excellent annual, and must prove a most acceptable offering for the young at the approaching Christmas and New Year.

24.—*Confessions of an English Opium-Eater. Being an Extract from the Life of a Scholar.* From the last London Edition. 12mo. pp. 190. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor. New York: J. & H. G. Langley. 1841.

The re-appearance of this highly wrought, spirit-stirring narrative, attributed without denial to De Quincy, will be received with a cordial welcome, by those who perchance became acquainted with it twenty years since in the pages of the London Magazine, or whose knowledge of it is only traditional. Its authenticity is, we believe, considered unquestionable. We esteem it not merely as an interesting record, but, in some degree, useful and instructive.

25.—*The Cause and Cure of Infidelity,—including a notice of the author's unbelief and the means of his rescue.* By the Rev. DAVID NELSON. New York: John S. Taylor & Co. 12mo. pp. 352. 1841.

This treatise is well calculated to excite the curiosity, awaken the attention, and stimulate the inquiry of the vigorous minds of the west, where the author's life has been chiefly spent. Abstruse argument is here brought down to the apprehension of men in general. Facts drawn from history, science, and observation, are placed in a strong light, and there is an earnestness, a personality running through the whole, which, to use the language of the President of Centre College, Kentucky, gives to the written argument much of the interest and power of an oral address.

26.—*Astronomy for Schools, upon the basis of M. Arago, of the Royal Observatory, Paris.* By W. H. HOSKINS, A. M. 12mo. pp. 323. New York: H. A. Chapin & Co. 1841.

In this book, the leading truths of the science of which it treats, are illustrated without mathematical demonstrations. A correspondent, in whose judgment we place confidence, says, "it is a work of singular merit, as a school book, for seminaries, or for general reading. The want of such a treatise in our common schools, is now most effectually supplied, and there can be no doubt that its peculiar advantages will introduce it into all our schools."

27.—*Rocky Island, and other Parables.* By SAMUEL WILBERFORCE, M. A., Archdeacon of Savoy. New York: John S. Taylor. 18mo. pp. 196.

This volume contains six parables, the design of which is to convey religious instruction to the minds of children. The writer is a son of Wilberforce the celebrated statesman and philanthropist.

- 27.—*History of Christianity, from the Birth of Christ to the Abolition of Paganism in the Roman Empire.* By H. H. MILMAN. With a Preface and Notes, by JAMES MURDOCK, D. D. pp. 528. Harper & Brothers.

This is a very valuable work, and full of interest, not only to the biblical scholar and divine, but to every class of readers. Ecclesiastical history has for the most part been treated of so little, in connection with political events, and so little in reference to its relation to the progress of society, that a most important view of it has been kept in a great measure out of sight. It was reserved for the learned author of this volume to strike out a new path in this department of historical research; to give us the history of Christianity upon a wider and more liberal scale; pointing out its vast temporal results; and tracing its influence and effects on the civilization and improvement of the world. This he has done, so far as he has gone, in a masterly manner; and when he shall have completed his design, by bringing his work down to a late period, as he promises to do, it will present an argument for Christianity, hitherto comparatively little dwelt on, which it will be impossible to resist or overturn.

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- 28.—*The Settlers at Home.* By HARRIET MARTINEAU. New York: Appleton & Co. 18mo. pp. 210. 1841.

Miss Martineau has never done better than in this little work. Appleton has done well in making it one of a series of Tales for the People and their Children. In every point of view "its beauty makes us glad." It is printed with clear, large type, on serviceable as well as handsome paper, and done up in the neatest style. But this is the smallest of its many recommendations. The plot of the tale is exceedingly simple, and yet deeply, almost painfully, interesting. We like for children—yes, we feel it right to demand for them—a narrative no way complicated or improbable. The subject of this is only a fact of history—the inundation of a Dutch settlement in England during the commonwealth times—drawn out in an individual case, with the fidelity and richness of description which characterizes the author of *Deerbrook*. But, still more, the moral of the book—one of the very noblest which could employ the moralist's pen—steals upon the heart so unostentatiously and sweetly. There is none of the usual parade about saying a very good thing—no flourish of drums to make the heralded peerage more conspicuously insignificant—no drawing down of the countenance, as if about to preach something very unnatural and not a little overstrained. Her moral of the victory which a forbearing and gentle spirit always obtains over the roughest nature, flows along so naturally in the narrative, one cannot doubt the fact, or weary over the inference, or skip the Christian philosophy. In most childrens' books, the child is driven, by the invincible pedantry and inimitable dullness of the reflective part, to omit it altogether. Here the precept and the practice are the same. As Providence teaches us chiefly by examples of living virtue, the "*Settlers at Home*" would convince us of the safety, dignity, and duty of Christian love, by the happy result of the controversy between Roger and Oliver. We commend the story most heartily to "*The People and their Children.*"

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- 29.—*Lectures on the Sphere and Duties of Woman, and other Subjects.* By GEORGE W. BURNAP. Baltimore: John Murphy. 1841. 12mo. pp. 272.

- 30.—*Lectures to Young Men on the Cultivation of the Mind, the Formation of Character, and the Conduct of Life.* By GEORGE W. BURNAP. Baltimore: John Murphy. 1841. 12mo. pp. 224.

These volumes are exceedingly able, timely, and striking. That to young men contains three lectures additional to those first published; one of which drew favorable notices from every quarter on its appearance in our pages. The volume addressed to the ladies, though it omits physical education and legal rights, is worthy to go forth a fellow-laborer with that to the young men, and both are, as far as we know, the best books on their subjects.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE POETRY OF BOOKKEEPING

The Honduras Observer thus describes the art of bookkeeping:—

Attentive be, and I'll impart
 What constitutes the accountant's art.
 This rule is clear; what I receive
 I debtor make to what I give.
 I debit Stock with all my debts,
 And credit it for my effects.
 The goods I buy I debtor make
 To him from whom those goods I take;
 Unless in ready cash I pay,
 Then credit what I paid away.
 For what I lose or make, 'tis plain,
 I debit Loss and credit Gain.
 The debtor's place is my left hand,
 Creditor on my right must stand.
 If to these axioms you'll attend,
 Bookkeeping you'll soon comprehend,
 And double-entry you will find
 Elucidated to your mind.

METHOD OF COLLECTING A DEBT.

We were much amused the other day, (says the editor of the St. Louis Bulletin,) on our way home, at the shrewdness of one of our city merchants, who was on a collecting tour through the western part of Missouri. The boat we were on landed at a small town, and the merchant repaired to the house of one of his debtors. On inquiring of the good lady for her husband, she expressed her regret that he had just left town, and would not, "*positively*, be back for a week." The merchant regretted that very much, as he "had some money" for her husband.

LADY.—You *have*?—well—really—let me see—John, are you *sure* that your father has gone?—go, see—perhaps I'm mistaken—run quick, and tell your father, if you can find him, that a gentleman is here who wishes to pay him some *money*.

The boy ran—full speed for his daddy.)

LADY.—I hope I *am* mistaken—husband was telling me this morning he expected some money from St. Louis. Money is so scarce these days, and people are so negligent in paying their debts. Jane, bring the gentleman some water, quick now—stop, come here—(*in a whisper, but audible to the merchant,*)—tell Sarah to bring some of those largest and best apples, do you hear?—now, run, quick! When did you leave St. Louis, sir?

MERCHANT.—Last Monday was two——

LADY.—(*Running to the window*)—There's husband, as true as I'm born—I really was afraid he'd left.

MERCHANT.—(*Husband enters, puffing and blowing*)—My dear G——, I was so fearful you had left.

HUSBAND.—(*In an under tone*)—I wish to Heaven I had! (*To the merchant*)—Ah, Mr. ——, how are you?

MERCHANT.—Very well—pleasant day—all well—hark! the bell is ringing—not much time to talk—I have a little business—(*presents two or three bills*)—would be very glad if you could settle them to-day.

HUSBAND.—Ah, ah—yes, sir—well, I don't know—Colonel Winston promised to be here to-day, who owes me some borrowed money—hard times—when will you leave, probably? (*Bell rings again.*)

MERCHANT.—I must be off, sir—"lift" one of these notes, and I'll wait for the rest—the bell is ringing, and I must be off.

HUSBAND.—Well, sir. (*Aside, to his wife*)—Why did you tell I was at home, confound it!

The merchant receives \$500, and bids the gentleman "good morning," much pleased with the success of the game he had played. Our friend regrets to say that the "good wife" countermanded her order for apples before he settled with the husband.

SLAVE MARKET AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

Mrs. Dawson Damer says, in her "Tour in Greece, Turkey, and Egypt:"—We took the slave market on our road home, where, however, we saw none of the disagreeable objects which such a name usually conjures up in the imagination from the descriptions one hears of slavery in other parts of the world. The countenances of the poor women here expressed nothing of that extreme dejection at being torn from their country and their friends, which one would naturally look for in slaves; on the contrary, they seemed quite reconciled to their fate, and were chiefly excited by hope or depressed by disappointment, as they seemed likely or not to obtain a purchaser; for, in fact, their only prospect of advancement in life is dependent upon becoming inmates of a wealthy harem, where its master's caprice may lead to the lowest slave becoming its mistress. The Sultana Valida herself is said to have been purchased from a Georgia merchant at the Tifflis market. They betrayed, however, no eagerness to attract our attention, as it is well known that no Giaours are permitted to make purchases. We only saw one female slave of great beauty, who, though very young, was already a mother, and had her infant in her arms. She was described to us as an Abyssinian, but had much more of the light copper coloring of the far east. Her hair was smooth and black, her features small and exquisitely proportioned, and the shape of her head faultless; so that if the phrenological criticism on the Venus de Medicis be correct, that a woman so formed would be deficient in understanding, this beautiful little Abyssinian must have been a perfect idiot.

GLUT IN THE MARKET.

A wealthy London merchant, who resided near Windsor, and lately retired from business, called upon Sir Astley Cooper to consult with him upon the state of his health. The patient was not only fond of the good things of this world, but indulged in high living to a great excess. This was soon discovered by Sir Astley, who thus addressed him:—"You are a merchant, sir, and therefore must possess an extensive knowledge of trade; but did you ever know of an instance in which the imports exceeded the exports that there was not a glut in the market? That's the case with you, sir; take more physic, and eat less. The gentleman took the hint, and has since declared that Sir Astley's knowledge of the "first principles of commerce," and the mode of giving his advice, rendering it "clear to the meanest capacity," has not only enabled him to enjoy good health ever since, but has probably prolonged his life for many years.

COMMERCIAL HONESTY.

A New York merchant says that in the year 1824, Mr. Christopher Robinson, of Lynn, Mass., made some purchases of him, but before the amount became due, he failed and compounded with his creditors at forty-five cents on the dollar, and was released from all further claim. He stated, however, at the time, that if he was ever able to pay the balance he would do so. Recently the merchant received a letter enclosing a check for \$164 06, being the balance of the debt, with interest. It affords us pleasure to publish a circumstance which we believe is of rare occurrence. May it stimulate others to do likewise!

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

TARIFF OF CHARGES, ETC., AT ST. LOUIS.

ESTABLISHED AND RECOMMENDED FOR GENERAL ADOPTION BY THE ST. LOUIS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The following rates to be charged, if no agreement exists to the contrary:—

Commissions—

	<i>Per cent.</i>
On sales of merchandise or produce,.....	5
On sales of lead,.....	2½
Guaranty of sales on time,	2½
For purchasing and shipping merchandise with funds in hand, (on the aggregate cost and charges,).....	2½
For accepting drafts, or endorsing notes or bills of exchange, without funds, produce, or bills of lading on hand,.....	2½
For cash advances in all cases, even with produce or bills of lading, (with interest from date,).....	2½
For shipping to another market, produce or merchandise upon which advances have been made,.....	2½
For negotiating drafts or notes, as drawer or indorser,.....	2½
On sale or purchase of stocks,.....	1
On sale or purchase of boats, without guaranty,.....	2½
For procuring freight, on amount of freight,.....	5
For chartering boats,	2½
For collecting freights or accounts,	2½
For collecting delayed or litigated accounts,.....	5
For collecting dividends on stocks,	½
For adjusting insurance losses,.....	2½
For receiving and remitting moneys from which no other remuneration is derived,	1
For effecting insurance, when the premium amounts to forty dollars or less, \$2 00	
For effecting insurance, when the premium exceeds forty dollars, on amount of the premium,	5
On outfits and disbursements,.....	2½

The above commissions to be exclusive of storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred.

The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the owner of the goods.

Interest to be charged at the rate of ten per cent per annum, on all debts, after maturity, until paid.

Rates for receiving and forwarding goods, exclusive of charges actually incurred:—

Sugar,.....	per hogshead	\$0 50
Tobacco,.....	per hogshead	0 50
Pork, beef, and whiskey, in bbls.....	per bbl	0 10
Flour, beans, wheat, beeswax, etc., in bbls.....	per bbl	0 06½
Corn, wheat, salt, etc.....	per sack	0 04
Lead,.....	per pig	0 02
Merchandise, assorted,.....	per 100 lbs.	0 10
Lard,.....	per keg	0 04
Gunpowder,.....	per keg	0 25
Carriages,.....	each	5 00
Gigs,.....	each	3 00
And other articles in proportion.		

Rates of storage—

	<i>Per month.</i>
On each hogshead of tobacco,.....	\$0 50
“ hogshead of sugar,.....	0 50
“ hogshead of molasses,.....	0 75
“ hogshead of bacon,.....	0 87½

	<i>Per month</i>
On each pipe or hogshead of liquor,.....	\$0 50
“ hogshead of oil,.....	0 50
“ tierce of oil,.....	0 37
“ tierce of rice or flaxseed,.....	0 25
“ harrel of salt,.....	0 08
“ barrel of oil, molasses, or foreign liquors,.....	0 12½
“ whiskey, cider, sugar, fish, lard, pork, or beef,.....	0 10
“ flour, apples, bread, and beans,.....	0 06½
“ 100 lbs. bacon, in boxes,.....	0 08
“ keg of lard,.....	0 03
“ soap or candles,.....	0 03
“ box of wine,.....	0 06½
“ box of raisins or drum of figs,.....	0 03
“ box of window glass,.....	0 05
“ half box of do.	0 03
“ 100 lbs. hempen yarn,.....	0 05
“ 100 lbs. hemp, in bales,.....	0 06½
“ 100 lbs. bale rope,.....	0 05
“ piece of bagging, 50 yards or less, (longer in proportion,).....	0 05
“ 100 lbs. cordage, tarred or white,.....	0 05
“ 100 lbs. salted hides,.....	0 06½
“ 100 lbs. dried hides,.....	0 10
“ crate and cask of queensware, small size,.....	0 25
“ “ “ large size,.....	0 37½
“ bag of coffee, pepper, and pimento,.....	0 10
“ 100 lbs. iron, steel, lead, and shot,.....	0 05
“ 100 lbs. manufactured tobacco,.....	0 06½
“ 100 lbs. drygoods, or other merchandise, in assorted lots,.....	0 10
“ bag of salt, large size,.....	0 10
“ “ small size,.....	0 06½
“ keg of white lead,..	0 02
“ keg of nails,.....	0 05
“ ton of dyewood,.....	1 00
“ hamper of bottles,.....	0 18½
“ ream of writing and wrapping paper,.....	0 01
“ cask of cheese,.....	0 08
“ 100 lbs. tea,.....	0 10

Other articles in proportion.

For the second and succeeding months, one half of the above rates to be charged. The rule, under the head of “commissions,” respecting fire, robbery, theft, etc., to apply, also, in the case of storage.

TAX ON NEW ORLEANS MERCHANTS.

The following are the provisions of an ordinance of the general council of the municipalities in the city of New Orleans, laying a tax on wholesale and retail dealers, and others, in that city :—

ARTICLE I.—An annual tax of twenty-five dollars, payable in advance, in the month of January of each year, shall be paid by each money or exchange broker, apothecary, and all wholesale merchants, dealers, and traders; and an annual tax of fifteen dollars shall, in like manner, be paid by all retail merchants, dealers, and traders.

ART. II.—The said tax shall be paid by each partner of any firm, engaged in the business or professions designated in the preceding article, except where such partner resides permanently out of the state.

ART. III.—Where the parties who are subject to this tax sell both by wholesale and retail, they shall pay the wholesale tax; and all persons shall be considered as wholesale dealers who sell or deliver goods by the package, whether the same be an original package or a package made up by said dealers themselves.

ART. IV.—All persons, occupying in whole or in part, any store, counting-room or

office; or engaged in any business directly connected with buying or selling of produce or merchandise; whether they act as principals or agents in said buying or selling, and whether they reside permanently or temporarily in the city; whether they sell on the levee, or from any flatboat, barge, steamboat, ship, or vessel, shall be liable to, and shall pay the tax imposed by this ordinance; and all the provisions and conditions thereof shall be applicable to the collection of said tax for the present year, except in such cases where parties may have already paid for the current year a similar tax under any previous ordinance. Provided, that the provisions of the present article shall not apply to sales on the levee, in any flat or steam boat, ship, or vessel, until after the 1st of November next.

ART. V.—That the tax levied by this ordinance shall be recoverable before any court of competent jurisdiction; and the said tax is declared to be in lieu of the tax imposed by the ordinance of 3d February, 1835, or of any similar tax, imposed by any other ordinance; and all ordinances, or parts of ordinances, heretofore in force, contrary to the provisions of the present ordinance, be, and is hereby repealed.

INSPECTION OF SOLE-LEATHER IN NEW YORK.

The following act of the "People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly," was passed and approved by the governor on the 26th day of May, 1841, to take effect immediately:—

1. The governor shall nominate, and with the consent of the senate appoint, one of the seven inspectors appointed by law, an inspector-general of sole-leather for the city and county of New York, who shall have been an experienced manufacturer of or dealer in leather, residing in said city, and who shall hold his office two years from the date of his appointment, and until a successor is appointed.

2. It shall be the duty of the inspector-general to divide among the inspectors as near as he can, an equal part of the leather to be inspected, and collect all moneys due for fees, and divide the same monthly in equal proportion among the said inspectors, reserving to himself one seventh part in addition to two per cent on the nett amount of said fees for extra services.

3. The said inspector-general shall keep an office near the central point of his business in said city, for the reception of orders from the owner, agent, or person having leather in charge; and it shall be the duty of the inspectors of leather, on the requirement of the inspector-general, to go without delay to the place within the city of New York, where such leather is deposited, and inspect the same, and make returns daily of every finished job to the inspector-general, the amount of leather inspected, and the quality thereof; and the said inspector-general shall enter the same in a book to be kept for that purpose, and make his returns to the secretary of state, according to law.

4. If any dispute shall arise between the purchaser and seller of any leather, or between either of them and the inspector, in relation to the inspection of any leather in said city, such dispute shall be submitted to and determined by the inspector-general; but, if the buyer or seller shall be dissatisfied with the decision of the inspector-general, they or either of them may appeal to three indifferent persons, one to be chosen by each of the parties, and the third by the two thus chosen, whose decision shall be conclusive in the matter.

5. The inspector-general shall exhibit his books to any person who may feel himself aggrieved on account of unfaithful inspection; and shall also, before he enters upon the duties of his office, execute a bond of two thousand dollars, with surety for the faithful performance of his duty, in the same manner as is now done by the inspector of green hides and skins in the city of New York.

MODIFICATION OF DANISH SOUND DUES.

The Danish government has concluded a treaty with Great Britain and Sweden relative to the passage of the sound. In virtue of this treaty, the duration of which is limited to ten years from the 15th of June, and may be prolonged for ten years more, if agreeable to the contracting parties, the court of Copenhagen has established a new tariff of duties to be paid by merchant vessels navigating under English or Swedish colors. In accordance with the negotiations which have lately taken place, the sound dues on several articles not mentioned in the Christianopol tariff have been reduced from the 15th of June, 1841.

Annexed are the alterations:—

	From June 15.	Former duty.
Allspice,.....per 100 lbs.	4½ stivers*	9 stivers
Oranges, lemons, etc.....per chest	1	2
Arsenic,.....per 300 lbs.	8	12
Orpiment,.....per 100 lbs.	6	9
Cocoa,.....per 100 lbs.	6	24
Coffee,.....per 100 lbs.	6	24
Camel's hair,.....per 50 lbs.	12	30
Canella Alba,.....per 100 lbs.	6	36
Cardamoms,.....per 100 lbs.	18	36
Cassia Fistula,.....per 100 lbs.	12	36
Cassia Lignea,.....per 100 lbs.	9	36
Cement,.....per 12 bbls.	12	36
Cubebs,.....per 100 lbs.	8	12
Juniper berries,.....per 800 lbs.	6	36
Cotton yarn or twist,.....per 100 lbs.	16	36
Do. sewings,.....per 50 lbs.	15	30
Do. printing,.....per 50 lbs.	15	18
Do. Turkey red,.....per 50 lbs.	15	30
Do. for embroidery,.....per 50 lbs.	15	30
Camel's yarn,.....per 50 lbs.	18	30
Manna or manna groats,.....per 100 lbs.	2	9
Turmeric,.....per 100 lbs.	4	12
Shot,.....per 100 lbs.	2	4
Dyewoods, viz:—Japan and Sapan wood, Provence wood, Sandal wood, Camwood or Barwood, Calia-tour wood, Campeachy wood, Honduras wood, Log-wood, Gallicie wood, Ficet wood,.....per 1000 lbs.	8	30 or 36
Nicaragua wood, Stockfish wood, Santa Martha wood, Rio de la Hache wood,.....per 1000 lbs.	12	36
Dyewoods not mentioned or stated in the Christianopol tariff, or here, 1 per cent ad valorem.		
Manufactured goods of all kinds, with the exception of white ordinary calicoes, and those mentioned here, 1 per cent ad valorem.		
Cotton hose,.....per 50 pairs	6	30
Half hose and children's do.....per 100 pairs	6	30
Ochre,.....per 200 lbs.	1	9
Paddy,.....per 400 lbs.	6	1½ st. per bushel.
Sarsaparilla,.....per 100 lbs.	18	36
Soda,.....per 300 lbs.	3	6
Spices not mentioned here, 1 per cent ad valorem.		
Sugar, raw,.....per 100 lbs.	5	9
Zinc,.....per 100 lbs.	2	3

* 48 stivers specie are equal to two Danish rix bank dollars, or one Danish specie dollar.

STEAMBOAT AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

UTICA AND SCHENECTADY RAILROAD.

We have frequently passed over this road, and as frequently been struck with its regularity, and the excellent management of Col. W. C. Young, the intelligent and efficient superintendent. The facts stated in the following notice from the Schenectady Reflector speak volumes in favor of the manner in which the affairs of this great thoroughfare are conducted:—

“ This road commenced operations with the month of August, 1836, from which time up to the 1st of August, 1841, makes a period of five years. Within that time the company's locomotive engines have made about 1,870 trips across the road annually, or in other words, have run on an average, about 150,000 miles a year, and within the period of five years 750,000 miles. Within the same period they have carried 434,893 passengers over the whole length of their road, and 376,695 between intermediate points; making, in the aggregate, 811,589 passengers who have been transported on that road within five years. Within this five years, during which 811,589 passengers have been conveyed on that road, no accident, (with but one exception, in 1836, when two passengers were slightly hurt,) has ever occurred, by which any passenger was injured; and no serious injury, (with but one exception,) has ever occurred to any of the men employed on the engines or train. Within the same period of five years, during which the locomotive engines have made, on an average, 1,870 trips annually, they have never failed to make any one trip, have never but once been six hours behind their time, and, (with four or five exceptions,) have never been three hours behind their time, although snows have covered the track three feet deep, and floods have carried off and fire burnt up bridges. There is no line of public conveyance on the face of the globe, not even excepting the Hudson river steamboats, that can show a greater degree of regularity, punctuality, and safety in the transportation of so great a number of passengers than the Utica and Schenectady railroad, and certainly no railroad that can at all compete with it. This most complete and gratifying success is owing to the care, attention, and skill of Wm. C. Young, superintendent and engineer; and of David Matthews, superintendent of the motive power on that road.”

GERMAN RAILWAYS.

The Augsburg Gazette gives the following account of the number of passengers conveyed on the German railroads, and the gross receipts during the month of June:— Vienna to Brunn, 22,128 passengers; receipts for passengers and goods, 71,304 florins. Munich to Augsburg, 25,037 passengers; receipts, 25,565 florins. Mannheim to Heidelberg, 29,409 passengers. Nuremberg to Furth, 44,647 passengers; receipts, 5,213 florins. Leipzig to Dresden, 50,249 passengers; receipts, 38,881 rix dollars. Dusseldorf to Elberfeld, 31,724 passengers. Magdeburg to Leipzig, 57,239 passengers. Berlin to Potsdam, 67,299 passengers. Mentz to Frankfort, 82,326 passengers; receipts, 43,246 florins. Cologne to Aix-la-Chapelle, number of passengers and amount of receipts not known. Berlin to Anhalt, 24,642 passengers. Vienna to Raab—this road was open as far as Baden in May, and on the 20th June to Neustadt; on the 27th June there were 17,000 passengers conveyed, and on the 29th 20,000. Lintz to Budweis, (in the month of May,) 1,603 passengers. Lintz to Gununden, (May,) 11,061 passengers, and 46,434 quintals of goods. Presburg to Tyrnau, the first of the railways in Hungary, number of passengers from the 28th of September, 1840, to the 30th of April, 1841, 25,132 passengers; receipts, 5,647 florins. The florin is equal to two francs and a half.

CUNARD'S BRITISH STEAMERS.

The annexed statement of the time of the arrival of each boat, and of the duration of their passages, is from the Boston Transcript. The time is calculated from the hour of their departure from Liverpool to the hour of their arrival in Boston, without deducting the time of their detention at Halifax:—

Britannia arrived	July 18, 1840,	in 14 days	8 hours.
Acadia	" Aug. 17,	"	in 12 "	12 "
Britannia	" Sept. 17,	"	in 13 "	12 "
Caledonia	" Oct. 2,	"	in 13 "	00 "
Acadia	" Oct. 17,	"	in 12 "	12 "
Britannia	" Nov. 3,	"	in 13 "	12 "
Caledonia	" Nov. 19,	"	in 14 "	22 "
Acadia	" Dec. 21,	"	in 16 "	22 "
Columbia	" Jan. 21, 1841,	in 16 "	15 "
Britannia	" Feb. 22,	"	in 17 "	12 "
Caledonia	" Mar. 20,	"	in 15 "	20 "
Acadia	" April 7,	"	in 18 "	12 "
Columbia	" April 21,	"	in 15 "	00 "
Britannia	" May 6,	"	in 15 "	10 "
Caledonia	" May 19,	"	in 14 "	12 "
Acadia	" June 2,	"	in 13 "	12 "
Columbia	" June 17,	"	in 12 "	02 "
Britannia	" July 3,	"	in 13 "	12 "
Caledonia	" July 17,	"	in 13 "	01 "

It will be seen by the above table that the boats have performed nineteen voyages from Liverpool to Boston. The average time occupied in these passages is fourteen days and ten hours, which, considering the tempestuous weather during the winter months, and which necessarily lengthened the voyages at that season of the year, may be said to be unparalleled in the annals of steam navigation.

COST OF TRANSPORTATION ON THE BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD.

Total cost, (including freight and toll,) for transporting flour on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad.

				Per barrel.					Per barrel.
From Harper's Ferry to Baltimore,				34 cts.	From McPherson's to Baltimore,				28 cts.
"	Weverton	to	"	32 "	"	Reel's Mill	to	"	28 "
"	Knoxville	to	"	32 "	"	Mount Airy	to	"	26 "
"	Berlin	to	"	32 "	"	Woodbine	to	"	23 "
"	Catoctin Switch	to	"	32 "	"	Hood's Mill	to	"	21 "
"	Point of Rocks	to	"	32 "	"	Sykesville	to	"	20 "
"	Frederick	to	"	30 "	"	Marriottsville	to	"	17 "
"	Ijamsville	to	"	30 "	"	Woodstock	to	"	15 "
"	Monrovia	to	"	30 "	"	Elys ville	to	"	13 "
"	Doup's Switch	to	"	28 "	"	Ellicott's Mills	to	"	9 "
"	Davis's Warehouse	to	"	28 "	"	Ilchester	to	"	8 "
"	Buckey & Kemp's	to	"	28 "					

WESTERN STEAMBOATS.

The following steamboat statistics are compiled from data found in the Louisville Directory, recently published. They exhibit an aggregate amount of steamboat tonnage, that presents the commercial importance of the west in a strong light. The number of steamboats now afloat on the western and southwestern waters is about four hundred. Of these boats there were built at Pittsburg, 112; Cincinnati, 70; Louisville, New Albany, and Jeffersonville, 55; Wheeling, 20; the residue at Brownsville, Marietta, Portsmouth, and other places, all on the western waters, except four or five built in eastern ports.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM THE PORT OF MOBILE,

For the last four years, the present ending 31st August, the others 30th September.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	1840-41.	1839-40.	1838-39.	1837-38.
Liverpool,	147,050	250,844	123,217	153,832
London,				
Glasgow and Greenock,	5,478	7,141	2,416	3,282
Cowes and a market,				
Belfast,				
Total to Great Britain,	152,528	257,985	125,623	157,114
Havre,	51,470	78,783	22,304	54,324
Bordeaux,		222		426
Marseilles,	1,994	1,523		4,634
Nantes,	1,123			1,052
Caen,	543			687
Total to France,	55,130	80,528	22,304	61,123
Amsterdam,		807	770	800
Rotterdam,	921	1,200		317
Antwerp,	1,873	5,935	985	2,461
Hamburg,	1,553	2,652		
Stockholm,	106	1,230		
St. Petersburg,				390
Havana,	3,891	2,366		1,315
Genoa, Trieste, &c	830	2,005	280	595
Total to other Foreign Ports,	9,174	16,195	2,008	5,908
New York,	48,611	34,067	59,176	47,168
Boston,	28,444	19,823	13,721	7,870
Providence,	9,853	7,192	6,564	2,601
Philadelphia,	2,605	2,758	735	
Baltimore,	2,656	759	685	
New Orleans,	5,096	15,672	16,768	22,920
Other Ports,	3,621	5,123	2,051	5,317
Total Coastwise,	100,886	85,394	99,700	85,876
TOTAL,	317,718	440,102	249,645	310,021

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF LEVY'S "NEW ORLEANS PRICE CURRENT AND COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCER."

"We now present our readers," says the editor of the New Orleans Price Current, "with the annual statement of the commerce of New Orleans, made up to September 1, 1841, instead of October 1, as heretofore. The compilation of tables of receipts and exports for the last ten years, to compare with the present, has been attended with much labor, but such having been the expressed wish of the great body of merchants, as represented by the chamber of commerce, we have not hesitated to meet it, and the greatest care having been taken in compiling and checking them, we think ourselves justified in recommending them to the public as correct. An account of the actual stocks, both of cotton and tobacco, has recently been taken, which conforms with the annexed statements."

1. *Exports of cotton from the port of New Orleans for ten years, commencing 1st September, and ending 31st August.*

RECAPITULATION OF COTTON.

<i>Whither Exported.</i>	<i>Bales of Cotton.</i>									
	1840-41.	1839-40.	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.	1831-32.
<i>Gt. Britain,...</i>	430310	504768	309787	483204	350700	237089	259243	287877	228082	204623
<i>France,.....</i>	183931	240490	120767	128303	133530	133140	141872	102510	81754	79685
<i>N. of Europe,</i>	9836	23742	1485	7540	6431	17989	4580	9530	3553	4208
<i>S. of Europe,</i>	86364	57754	9425	13992	13172	12083	6904	1334	1690	6387
<i>Contwise,...</i>	160847	122566	137734	105254	85136	90194	124392	59625	95445	63201
TOTAL,...	821288	949320	579179	738313	588969	490495	536891	461026	410524	358104

2. Exports of tobacco from the port of New Orleans for ten years, commencing 1st September, and ending 31st August.

Hogsheads of Tobacco.									
Whither Exported.	1840-41.	1839-40.	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.
Liverpool,.....	5252	3827	4115	2695	1913	2033	2006	1913	1594
London,.....	8732	4320	3725	3579	1989	6267	2593	1348	346
Glasgow and Greenock,.....	37
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.....	6681	992	871	3695	6556	5126	975	4851	7005
Cork, Belfast, &c.....
Havre,.....	4224	3655	1455	2858	2447	384	333	168	560
Bordeaux,.....	814	1107	504	220	654	10	20
Marseilles,.....	1774	1844	315	1516	699	38	1107	138
Nantz,.....	312	61	10
Cette and Rouen,.....
Amsterdam,.....	224	1254	674	32	889
Rotterdam and Ghent,.....	299	426
Bremen,.....	4012	2464	1366	1500	3736	871	2966	2083	3265
Antwerp, &c.....	1219	1090	713	1011	909	398
Hamburg,.....	1064	1465	206	674	852	704	942	1312
Gottenburg,.....	1559	745	939	576	342	1545	1173	528	757
Spain and Gibraltar,.....	4142	3843	3400	1542	1628	414	902	745	920
West Indies,.....	1020	1013	618	725	1317	786	859	536	364
Genoa, Trieste, &c.....	2	44	598	563	394	174	101
Other foreign ports,.....	667	343	315	186	612	274	188	87	3
New York,.....	7466	8132	8174	9758	4838	9544	10639	4674	9002
Boston,.....	3109	2888	2888	2616	3520	2795	4847	2557	3154
Providence, R. L.....	1	1
Philadelphia,.....	2126	1963	1291	1649	1494	2043	3002	1166	2757
Baltimore,.....	517	219	296	770	541	878	410	19	623
Portsmouth,.....
Other coastwise ports,.....	287	482	225	617	916	3691	684	2372	1559
Western states,.....
TOTAL,.....	54667	40436	30852	35555	35821	41634	33801	25210	35056

RECAPITULATION OF TOBACCO.

Hogsheads of Tobacco.									
Whither Exported.	1840-41.	1839-40.	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.
Gr. Britain,...	20665	9139	8748	9969	10458	14426	5934	8112	4875
France,.....	6812	6606	1770	4878	3778	1137	1460	306	85
N. of Europe,	8040	6005	2654	2438	6760	5526	4943	4462	3887
S. of Europe,	5845	5002	4806	2860	8516	1594	1881	1542	447
Coastwise, ...	13505	13684	12874	15410	11309	18951	19583	10788	14343
TOTAL,.....	54667	40436	20852	25555	35821	41634	33801	25210	23637

3. Table, exhibiting the arrivals, exports, and stocks of cotton and tobacco at New Orleans, for ten years, from September 1st to date each year.

Years.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HOGSHEADS.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1840-41.....	822,870	821,288	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839-40.....	954,445	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838-39.....	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,852	1,294
1837-38.....	742,720	738,313	9,570	37,588	35,555	3,834
1836-37.....	605,813	588,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,857
1835-36.....	495,442	490,495	4,586	50,555	41,634	10,456
1834-35.....	536,172	536,991	3,649	35,059	33,801	1,821
1833-34.....	467,984	461,026	4,082	25,871	25,210	717
1832-33.....	403,833	410,524	816	20,627	23,637	1,203
1831-32.....	345,646	358,104	9,778	31,174	35,056	4,646

4. Table, exhibiting the exports of sugar from the port of New Orleans for five years, (up the Mississippi excepted,) from 1st September to 31st August.

Whither Exported.	1840-41.		1839-40.		1838-39.		1837-38.		1836-37.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,.....	18759	822	18556	598	9911	229	12593	75	9999	53
Philadelphia,.....	6726	431	8622	134	4516	126	5417	5295	19
Charleston, S. C.....	1716	1	1513	88	1535	97	1745	1717	171
Savannah,.....	357	39	722	670	30	404	81	450
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,.....	3	20	12	3	3	29
Boston,.....	422	114	951	327	1612	131	415	755	36
Baltimore,.....	7588	48	8403	942	5804	79	4867	4439	120
Norfolk,.....	664	48	819	553	659	5	188	539
Richmond and Petersburg,...	1520	64	1923	179	1215	19	1039	110	681
Alexandria, D. C.....	374	2	372	137	59	15
Mobile,.....	1530	445	2214	315	1816	140	1271	234	1005	157
Apalachicola and Pensacola,	566	782	947	1567	457	661	397	1271	218	1024
Other ports,.....	304	1293	234	1880	480	1273	227	1910	70	588
TOTAL,.....	40526	4092	45296	6595	28815	2793	28651	3696	25168	2168

5. Table, exhibiting the exports of molasses from the port of New Orleans for five years, (up the Mississippi excepted,) from 1st September to 31st August.

Whither Exported.	1840-41.		1839-40.		1838-39.		1837-38.		1836-37.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,.....	5496	17081	3511	15105	7584	3884	4897	8536	5106	8322
Philadelphia,.....	1002	4694	962	3078	173	753	782	725	337	467
Charleston, S. C.....	550	5216	2309	863	2844	591	3596	246	3325
Savannah,.....	1008	117	1309	182	1174	1322	2887
Providence and Bristol,	208	103	99	251	273	696	383	162	52	155
Boston,.....	496	2756	811	4451	456	328	227	1826	727
Baltimore,.....	1582	7275	1267	5850	1734	3552	1216	3666	281	3318
Norfolk,.....	350	539	50	971	391	770	579
Richmond & Petersb'g,	91	716	89	1694	231	765	236	1678	8	1592
Alexandria, D. C.....	85	153	98	399	257	108	368
Mobile,.....	4778	38	3867	2609	2018	3087
Apalach. & Pensacola,	1124	51	1710	232	1542	15	900	3	1299
Other ports,.....	1424	2661	1942	1704	1387	1495	1610	2441	223	1542
TOTAL,.....	11284	48104	8937	42397	13115	20432	10214	27748	6256	27668

6. Table, exhibiting the imports from the interior into the port of New Orleans for ten years, from 1st September to 31st August, in each year.

Articles.	1840-41.	1839-40.	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.	1831-32.
Apples,.....	27,244	24,387	6,724	27,561	18,850	23,315	2,359	10,469	11,954	11,530
Apple Brandy,.....	4	44	7	50	51
Bacon, assorted,.....	11,120	7,197	13,533	11,541	7,774	7,099	8,911	5,051	4,251	4,881
Bacon, assorted,.....	111	153	215	174	357	375	774	524	215	370
Bacon Hams,.....	6,006	4,349	6,089	5,420	6,164	7,356	8,175	7,318	1,821	2,734
Bacon, in bulk,.....	2,593,057	1,117,987	1,501,900	985,250	1,492,877	893,188	1,525,059	567,324	670,693	990,905
Bagging, Kentucky,.....	70,976	66,898	49,697	48,364	30,477	55,160	47,503	21,921	31,965	22,494
Bale Rope,.....	65,613	47,970	62,602	61,005	21,256	33,033	30,923	21,951	23,660	24,127
Beans,.....	14,281	2,026	405	4,015	5,519	1,946	312	1,159	13,874	2,850
Butter,.....	23	19	5	51	1	49	38	1	13
Butter,.....	14,074	10,429	7,557	11,967	7,369	6,178	5,930	7,804	8,847	4,812
Butter,.....	693	790	429	279	199	382	64	80	160	165
Beeswax,.....	306	182	155	117	255	244	200	474	380	511
Beeswax,.....	1	72	21	1	4	51	20	5	185	374
Beeswax,.....	16,069	10,573	4,250	7,963	1,800	20,890	51,435	28,250
Beef,.....	33,262	10,843	10,777	6,153	9,859	9,618	10,118	5,401	5,331	4,609
Beef,.....	32	195	70	36	17	56	18	180	204	3
Beef, dried,.....	70,100	39,120	38,090	44,050	130,646	115,223	30,052	59,160	103,410	152,910
Buffalo Robes,.....	2,587	5,447	4,035	2,929	4,816	3,800	2,493	1,626	1,957	1,942
Louisiana and Mississippi,.....	677,343	747,894	469,231	560,406	443,307	355,149	349,805	311,383	287,728	194,469
Lake,.....	5,163	14,960	12,156	13,836	11,643	11,166	10,848	9,202	11,974	7,354
North Alabama and Tennessee,.....	118,122	155,466	69,347	124,539	132,080	96,700	149,181	134,482	93,303	114,934
Arkansas,.....	11,149	13,767	7,003	11,969	7,101	5,738	3,134	1,616	2,862	1,187
Mobile,.....	5,881	15,649	16,768	23,301	7,655	16,472	17,456	5,063	1,533	17,663
Florida,.....	731	2,727	1,080	5,437	1,053	6,882	2,764	5,321	6,278	9,499
Texas,.....	4,481	3,982	2,929	3,232	2,974	3,335	2,984	917	155	540
Corn Meal,.....	2,214	1,447	3,082	3,109	2,992	8,703	1,518	1,665	2,983	2,028
Corn, in ears,.....	168,050	152,965	161,918	270,924	194,013	255,975	262,410	97,774	91,473	71,322
Corn, shelled,.....	268,557	278,358	338,795	177,751	369,090	287,182	162,346	62,137	65,620	7,490
Cheese,.....	1,852	428	319	510	201	291	173	117	153	321
Candles,.....	425	390	34	800	23	216	46	519	1,811	127
Cider,.....	544	524	184	1,627	735	1,790	22	1,199	898	929
Coal, Western,.....	221,233	99,915	94,362	99,220	61,118	85,328	45,756	24,120	50,000	50,000

7. Table, exhibiting the monthly arrivals of ships, barks, brigs, schooners, and steam-boats at the port of New Orleans, for four years, from 1st September to 31st August.

Months.	1840-41.						1839-40.					
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	TOTAL.	Steam-boats.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	TOTAL.	Steam-boats.
September,.....	31	7	18	20	76	83	16	2	17	18	52	62
October,.....	55	13	15	37	120	186	49	6	21	40	116	135
November,.....	68	18	23	27	136	229	54	18	26	38	136	153
December,.....	105	30	55	76	266	281	59	22	57	65	203	241
January,.....	80	32	43	65	220	241	99	26	53	91	269	196
February,.....	37	15	21	50	123	207	38	14	36	64	152	219
March,.....	76	25	52	97	250	233	27	13	26	110	176	241
April,.....	53	15	32	43	143	219	94	33	54	74	255	207
May,.....	40	10	22	31	103	208	30	11	60	69	170	170
June,.....	24	10	14	31	79	141	40	13	37	50	140	135
July,.....	12	10	16	20	58	92	39	9	30	29	97	103
August,.....	14	6	14	35	69	67	18	10	18	34	80	75
TOTAL,.....	595	191	925	532	1643	2187	553	177	435	682	1846	1973

Table 7 continued.

Months.	1838-39.						1837-38.					
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	TOTAL.	Steam-boats.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	TOTAL.	Steam-boats.
September,.....	22	3	13	18	56	57	18	7	9	24	58	64
October,.....	42	9	23	31	105	50	20	7	19	15	61	74
November,.....	81	15	45	56	197	117	77	12	35	33	157	103
December,.....	69	17	47	63	196	163	64	11	45	48	168	204
January,.....	67	18	59	103	247	161	44	9	54	64	171	198
February,.....	53	25	44	84	206	179	33	9	41	59	142	165
March,.....	57	18	56	98	229	195	48	4	58	75	185	186
April,.....	49	19	37	79	184	186	44	16	37	72	169	150
May,.....	52	5	39	62	158	187	53	10	50	55	168	144
June,.....	8	6	15	41	70	144	46	11	65	73	195	156
July,.....	16	9	19	47	91	76	12	6	27	29	74	79
August,.....	15	2	10	34	61	53	12	9	20	23	64	35
TOTAL,.....	461	146	407	716	1740	1568	471	111	460	570	1612	1558

In the year 1836-37 the arrivals were as follows:—ships, 408; barks, 102; brigs, 440; schooners, 540; total sailing vessels, 1,489: steamboats, 1,561.

IMPORTATION OF COCHINEAL INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

Statement of imports of cochineal into Great Britain at six different periods, from 1815 to 1840.

Year.	HOME USE.	EXPORTS.	PRICE.	STOCK.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Per Pound.	Ceroons and Bags.
1815.....	55,378	78,236	33s. to 38s.	3,337
1820.....	73,696	56,302	24s. to 27s.	3,441
1825.....	118,123	92,782	17s. to 20s.	2,184
1830.....	172,123	102,367	8s. 6d. to 10s.	2,047
1835.....	170,843	346,759	6s. 9d. to 9s.	2,296
1840.....	510,631	819,329	4s. to 6s.	3,415

SKETCH OF THE COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1840.

AS COMPILED FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT FOR HAZARD'S UNITED STATES REGISTER.

IMPORTS.

The imports in 1840, (year ending 30th September,) amounted to \$107,141,519, exceeded by the exports \$24,944,427. This amount varies from the tables accompanying the report of the secretary.

In 1838, the imports were.....	\$113,717,404
1839, ".....	162,092,132
1840, ".....	107,141,519

Which shows the imports in 1840 to have been less than in 1838 by \$6,575,885, and than in 1839, \$54,950,613.

Of the imports, \$92,802,352 were in American, and \$14,339,167 in foreign vessels.

Of the whole amount of imports, \$57,196,204, or 53 per cent, was free of duty.

The amount of imports from—

England,.....	was \$33,114,133	Mexico,.....	was \$4,175,001
France,.....	17,572,876	Hanse Towns,.....	2,521,493
Cuba,.....	9,835,477	British American colonies,	2,007,767
China,.....	6,640,829	Russia,.....	2,572,427
Brazil,.....	4,927,296	British East Indies,.....	1,952,461

From Sweden and Norway, Holland, British West Indies, Hayti, Spain, and Spanish West Indies, except Cuba, Italy, Venezuela, and Chili, the imports exceed one million each.

Some of the principal articles of import were—

Teas, (from China,) 19,981,476 lbs.....	\$5,417,589
Coffee, 94,996,095 lbs.	8,546,222
Silks, not India,.....	8,288,958
Cloths and cassimeres,.....	4,696,529
Cottons dyed, printed, or colored,	3,893,694
Brown sugar, 107,955,038 lbs.....	4,742,492
Bar iron,.....	3,397,480
Salt,.....	1,015,526
Molasses,.....	2,910,791

EXPORTS.

The amount of exports in 1840 amounted to \$132,085,946

" " 1839 " 121,028,416

" " 1838 " 108,486,616

Being an excess in 1840 over 1838 of \$23,599,330, and over 1839 of \$11,057,530. Domestic exports in 1840 amounted to \$113,895,634, and foreign exports to \$18,190,312. In 1840 the domestic exports exceeded those of 1839 \$10,361,743. The exports exceeded the imports \$24,944,427.

Some of the principal domestic exports in 1840 were—

Cotton,.....	\$63,870,307
Flour,.....	10,143,615
Tobacco,.....	9,883,957
Cotton goods,.....	3,549,607
Refined sugar,.....	1,214,658

Of the exports there went to—

England,.....	\$57,048,660	Holland,.....	\$3,856,310
France,.....	21,841,554	British West Indies,.....	2,965,584
Cuba,.....	6,310,515	Mexico,.....	2,515,341
British American colonies,....	6,093,250	Brazil,.....	2,506,574
Hanse Towns,.....	4,198,459	Scotland,.....	2,050,940

Russia, Danish West Indies, Hayti, Italy, Trieste, Texas, Chili, and China, each took of the exports over one million.

SPECIE.		
Imports—gold bullion,.....	\$273,127	
silver bullion,.....	469,434	
		742,561
Specie—gold,.....	\$2,812,030	
" silver,.....	5,328,222	
		8,140,252
Total imports,.....		\$8,882,813
Exports—American gold and silver coin,.....	2,235,073	
Foreign gold,.....	1,468,300	
" silver,.....	4,665,952	
	6,134,252	
		8,369,325
Total excess of imports,.....		\$513,488
Showing that there has been an excess of imports of \$2,748,561 of foreign gold and silver, and an export of \$2,235,073 of American in its place.		
Of the whole amount of domestic exports, the southern states exported, viz :—		
Maryland,.....	\$5,495,020	
Virginia,.....	4,769,937	
North Carolina,.....	387,484	
South Carolina,.....	9,981,016	
Georgia,.....	6,862,959	
Alabama,	12,854,694	
Louisiana,.....	32,998,059	
Florida,.....	1,850,709	
		\$75,199,878
The middle states exported as follows :—		
New York,.....	\$22,676,609	
New Jersey,.....	14,863	
Pennsylvania,	5,736,456	
Delaware,.....	37,001	
		28,464,929
New England states :—		
Maine,.....	\$1,000,910	
New Hampshire,.....	20,761	
Vermont,.....	305,150	
Massachusetts,.....	6,268,158	
Rhode Island,.....	203,006	
Connecticut,.....	518,210	
		8,325,195
Western states :—		
Ohio,	\$991,954	
Michigan,.....	162,229	
		1,154,183
District of Columbia,.....		751,429
Total exports,		\$113,895,634

From this statement it would appear that the southern states export nearly three fourths of the domestic products of the United States; of which Louisiana exports nearly one half. But as the Mississippi is the natural outlet of the southwestern and western states which do not appear in the tables to have any exports, they ought to be considered in connection with that state. Again, they are entitled to a credit for a considerable portion of the exports from the middle and eastern states, such as the cotton, tobacco, rice, &c.

The following is a similar classification of the several states with respect to the imports of 1840 :—

Maryland,.....	\$4,910,746	
Virginia,.....	545,085	
North Carolina,.....	252,532	
South Carolina,.....	2,058,870	
Georgia,.....	491,428	
Alabama,.....	574,651	
Louisiana,.....	10,673,190	
Florida,.....	190,728	
	<hr/>	\$19,697,230
Middle states :—		
New York,.....	\$60,440,750	
New Jersey,.....	19,209	
Pennsylvania,.....	8,464,882	
Delaware,.....	802	
	<hr/>	68,925,643
New England, or eastern states :—		
Maine,.....	\$628,762	
New Hampshire,.....	114,647	
Vermont,.....	404,617	
Massachusetts,.....	16,513,858	
Rhode Island,.....	274,534	
Connecticut,.....	277,072	
	<hr/>	18,213,490
Southwestern and western states :—		
Ohio,.....	\$4,915	
Kentucky,.....	2,241	
Tennessee,.....	28,938	
Michigan,.....	136,610	
Missouri,.....	10,600	
	<hr/>	185,304
District of Columbia,.....		119,852
	<hr/>	
Total imports,.....		\$107,141,519

Showing that about 4-5ths of the whole amount of imports arrive in the middle and eastern states.

NAVIGATION AND TONNAGE.

There arrived, in 1840, 7,211 American, 4,571 foreign vessels ; total, 11,782 vessels, of 2,289,309 tons. Crews, 110,991 men, 3,739 boys. Cleared during the same, 7,583 American, 4,583 foreign ; total, 12,166 ; tons, 2,353,495. Crews, 116,331 men, 3,415 boys. Of the foreign vessels which entered 4,024 were British, 113 French, 134 Hanseatic, 101 Spanish. Of the vessels entered there arrived at—

New York,.....	1,955	New Orleans,.....	924
Boston,.....	1,507	Philadelphia,.....	444
Passamaquoddy,.....	1,161	Baltimore,.....	410

The registered tonnage of the United States is 899,764.76
 Enrolled and licensed,.....1,176,695.46
 Fishing vessels,..... 104,304.84

Tons,.....	2,180,764.16.95
The tonnage employed in the whale fishery,	136,926.64.94
“ “ coasting trade,.....	1,144,664.34
“ “ cod fishery,.....	67,926.48
“ “ mackerel fishery,..	28,269.19
“ “ steam navigation,	198,184.30

There were built in the United States, in 1840, 97 ships, 109 brigs, 378 schooners, 224 sloops, 63 steamboats ; total, 871. Tonnage, 118,309 23.95.

Of these, 181 were built in Maine ; 113 in Massachusetts ; 109 in New Jersey ; 103 in Pennsylvania ; 111 in Maryland ; 72 in New York

There were sold to foreigners, 11 ships ; 29 brigs ; 46 schooners ; 1 sloop.

Lost at sea, 33 ships ; 41 brigs ; 87 schooners ; 20 sloops ; 16 steamboats.

COTTON EXPORTS OF GREAT BRITAIN, &c., FOR 1840.

Statement showing the declared value of cotton manufactures and cotton yarn, exported from the united kingdom, and the amounts taken by the different countries to which they were exported; derived from official documents, and originally published in the Leeds Mercury.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE.	COUNTRIES.	VALUE.
<i>Northern Europe.</i>		St. Helena,.....	1,494
Russia,.....	£1,151,798	Mauritius,.....	159,808
Sweden,.....	66,350	<i>Asia.</i>	
Norway,.....	28,000	Arabia,.....	
Denmark,.....	6,328	E. Ind. Co.'s territ's & Ceylon,	3,878,186
Prussia,.....	1,961	Sumatra, Java, &c. in Ind. seas,	272,633
Germany,.....	3,551,439	Philippine islands,.....	141,629
Holland,.....	2,244,373	China,.....	327,137
Belgium,.....	206,530	British settlements in Australia,	179,707
<i>Southern Europe.</i>		New Zealand,.....	3,181
France,.....	209,136	South Sea islands,.....	1,998
Portugal Proper,.....	728,309	<i>America.</i>	
Portugal Azores,.....	25,228	British North Amer. colonies,	611,303
Portugal Madeira,.....	16,677	British West Indies,.....	1,234,687
Spain and the Balearic islands,	11,181	Haiti,.....	161,929
Spain and the Canaries,.....	28,339	Cuba, and other for. W. I. col's,	401,382
Gibraltar,.....	635,821	United States of America,.....	1,123,439
Italy and the Italian islands,...	1,671,122	<i>States of Cen. and S. America.</i>	
Malta,.....	80,261	Mexico,.....	249,065
Ionian islands,.....	49,174	Guatemala,.....	
Morca and Greek islands,.....	638	Colombia,.....	248,046
Turkey,.....	895,888	Brazil,.....	1,525,037
Syria and Palestine,.....	216,269	States of the Rio de la Plata,...	335,305
<i>Africa.</i>		Chili,.....	921,627
Egypt,.....	64,267	Peru,.....	494,827
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, &c.....	47,047	<i>Neighboring British islands.</i>	
Western coast of Africa,.....	262,499	Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, {	
Cape of Good Hope,.....	134,655	Man, &c.....	65,381
African ports on the Red Sea,.....			
Cape Verd islands,.....	2,487	TOTAL EXPORTS,.....	£24,668,618

White or plain cottons,.....yards, 433,114,373.....value, £7,803,772
 Printed or dyed cottons,..... " 357,517,624..... " 8,498,448
 Hosiery and small wares,..... " 1,265,090
 Twist and yarn,.....pounds, 118,470,323..... " 7,101,308

Total value of cotton exports,.....£24,668,618

BELGIAN COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

It appears by an account of the return of the commercial movement of the Belgian ports, for 1840, that the number of vessels which entered Antwerp in that year was 1,173, measuring 180,632 tons; and the number which left the port 1,151, measuring 163,306 tons. The imports by sea into Antwerp amounted to 120,902,770f., being nearly 23,000,000f. more than in 1839. The general movement of arrivals and departures at Ostend was 753 vessels, measuring 76,076 tons; Ghent, 285 vessels, giving a total of 27,486 tons; Louvain, 132 vessels, 9,576 tons; Nieuport, 204 vessels, 5,994 tons. The general result of the five ports was 3,598 vessels, measuring 463,069 tons, being 61 vessels and 49,429 tons less than in 1839. The imports by sea into Ostend amounted to 9,383,557f.; Nieuport, 3,964,141f.; Louvain, 472,300f.; Ghent, 20,294,777f. The total amount of the imports for the five ports was 155,472,605f. The imports of cotton amounted to 13,019,900f., being 7,794,740f. more than in 1839. Of this amount 10,955,540f. was from the U. S.; 1,957,000f. from England; and 263,360 from France.

BANK STATISTICS.

BANK OF FRANCE.

DEBTOR AND CREDITOR ACCOUNT OF THE POSITION OF THE BANK ON THE 30TH JUNE, 1841.

<i>Debtor.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Ctmes.</i>
Bank notes payable to bearer,.....	225,011,500	00
Bank notes payable to order,.....	1,205,939	95
Account current with the Treasury,.....	120,343,174	79
Various accounts current,.....	48,857,392	44
Receipts payable at sight,.....	2,803,500	00
Capital of the bank,.....	67,900,000	00
Reserve,.....	10,000,000	00
House and furniture,.....	4,000,000	00
Dividends payable,.....	4,328,001	43
Different branch banks,.....	2,685,724	28
Drafts of branch banks payable,.....	243,900	63

Total,.....487,379,133 52

<i>Creditor.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Ctmes.</i>
Cash on hand,.....	225,691,022	82
Commercial bills discounted,.....	148,513,296	72
Advanced on the security of bullion,.....	8,297,000	00
Advanced on government securities,.....	8,822,491	65
Accounts current debtors,.....	19,594,398	27
Capital advanced to branch banks,.....	12,000,000	00
Reserve,.....	10,000,000	00
Lodged in government securities,.....	50,177,748	90
House and furniture,.....	4,000,000	00
Sundry credits,.....	283,175	16

Total,.....487,379,133 52

AVERAGE AMOUNT OF BUSINESS TRANSACTED DURING THE QUARTER ENDING 30TH JUNE, 1841.

<i>Debtor.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Average amount of bank notes payable to order outstanding,.....	226,727,500
Treasury account,.....	106,693,000
Sundry accounts,.....	45,558,500
Receipts payable at sight,.....	3,825,500

<i>Creditor.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Average amount of cash on hand,.....	226,856,500
Average amount of commercial bills discounted,.....	117,115,500
Advances on bullion, &c.....	19,615,000
Branch banks, accounts current,.....	16,958,000

BUSINESS TRANSACTED DURING THE QUARTER ENDING THE 30TH OF JUNE, 1841.

	<i>Francs.</i>
Amount of bills of exchange discounted,.....	213,907,500
Cash advanced on deposits of bullion and government stock,.....	32,152,600
Received from sundry accounts current,.....	1,018,826,000
Paid for sundry accounts current,.....	1,031,961,000
Received from the Treasury,.....	105,226,000
Paid from the Treasury,.....	84,635,000
Received in sundry cash payments,.....	594,287,000
Paid in sundry cash payments,.....	591,519,500

SAVINGS BANKS IN FRANCE.

The *Moniteur* publishes a report to the king, from the minister of commerce, on the savings banks throughout France, including Paris. We learn from the document that the number of savings banks, with their branches, which, in 1834, was only 70, had, in 1839, increased to 404; and the amount of deposits in hand, which was, in 1834, only 37,015,492 francs, although the institution of savings banks in France had already at that time an existence of sixteen years, had increased, in 1839, to 171,057,904 francs.

The progressive increase from 1834 was as follows:—1835, 62,185,676 francs ; 1836, 96,576,622 francs ; 1837, 107,637,150 francs ; 1838, 146,089,884 francs ; and in 1839, 171,057,904 francs. The number of depositors, in 1834, was 81,714, giving an average of 452f. 98c. for each ; in 1839 it was 310,843, giving an average of 550f. 30c., thus showing a beneficial result, not only as to increase of numbers, but also as to the pecuniary means of contributors, or greater habits of economy.

BOSTON BANKS.

Table of the Boston banks, presidents, cashiers, capital, and the semi-annual dividend paid on the 4th of October, 1841.

Banks.	Presidents.	Cashiers.	Capital.	Dividend. Per cent.	Amount.
Atlas,.....	Samuel C. Gray,...	Joseph White,.....	\$500,000	2½	\$12,500
Atlantic,.....	Pliny Cutler,.....	Benjamin Dodd,....	500,000	3	15,000
Boston,.....	Robert G. Shaw,...	James C. Wild,....	600,000	3½	21,000
City,.....	C. W. Cartwright,	Eliphalet Williams,	1,000,000	none	
Columbian,.....	John G. Torrey,...	William Coffin,....	500,000	3	15,000
Eagle,.....	Titus Welles,.....	Waldo Flint,.....	500,000	3½	17,000
Freeman's,.....	Andrew Drake, ...	Jeremy Drake,.....	150,000	3½	5,250
Globe,.....	James Read,.....	Charles Sprague,...	1,000,000	3	30,000
Granite,.....	Joseph V. Bacon,...	Archibald Foster,..	500,000	3	15,000
Hamilton,.....	Daniel Denny,.....	Joseph Hall, jr.....	500,000	3	15,000
Massachusetts,.....	Wm. Parsons,.....	James Dodd,.....	800,000	3	24,000
Market,*	J. Stickney,.....	Jonathan Brown,...	600,000	3½	19,600
Mechanics',.....	David Nickerson,...	Alvan Simonds,....	150,000	3	4,500
Merchants',.....	Franklin Haven,...	C. H. Eldredge,....	2,000,000	3½	70,000
New England,.....	Philip Maret,.....	E. P. Clark,.....	1,000,000	3	30,000
North,.....	John W. Trull,....	Gurdon Steele,.....	750,000	3	30,000
Shoe & Leath. D's.	Enoch Baldwin,....	E. Plummer,.....	500,000	3½	17,500
Shawmut,.....	Benj. T. Reed,.....	Thomas Drown,...	500,000	3	15,000
State,.....	E. A. Bourne,.....	Jonathan Call,	1,000,000	1	18,000
Suffolk,.....	Henry B. Stone,...	Isaac C. Brewer,...	1,800,000	4	40,000
South,.....	B. C. Clark,.....	J. J. Loring,.....	500,000	2	10,000
Tremont,.....	E. T. Armstrong,...	James Dalton,.....	500,000	3	15,000
Traders',.....	David Dudley,.....	Jeremiah Gore,....	500,000	none	
Union,.....	Samuel Fales,.....	Chester Adams,....	800,000	3	24,000
Washington,.....	Aaron Baldwin,....	D. A. Sigourney,...	500,000	2½	13,750
			\$17,610,000		\$466,350

* Out of the earnings since the reduction of the capital.

COMPARISON OF THE PRICES OF BANK NOTES IN 1841 AND 1824.

Massachusetts,	1841, par	1824, par	
Maine,.....	" ½	per cent discount	" 1	per cent discount
New Hampshire,.....	" ¼	" "	" 1	" "
Vermont,.....	" ¼	" "	" 1	" "
Canada,.....	" 2	" "	" 2	" "
Pennsylvania, (Phila.)	" 3½	" "	" par	
Maryland,.....	" 3	" "	" ½	per cent discount
Virginia,.....	" 4	" "	" 1	" "
North Carolina,.....	" 4½	" "	" 1½	" "
Georgia,.....	" 10	" "	" 35	" "
Ohio,.....	" 9	" "	" 6	" "
Kentucky,.....	" 9	" "	" 60	" "
Tennessee,.....	" 10	" "	" 35	" "
Louisiana,.....	" 5	" "	" 3½	" "
Alabama,.....	" 11	" "	" 6	" "

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1840.

Official epitome of the whole population of the states and territories of the United States, exhibiting the general aggregate amount of each description of persons, by classes.

FREE WHITE PERSONS.

Males —Under five years of age,.....	1,270,790	
Of five and under ten,.....	1,024,072	
Of ten and under fifteen,.....	879,499	
Of fifteen and under twenty,.....	756,622	
Of twenty and under thirty,.....	1,322,440	
Of thirty and under forty,.....	866,431	
Of fifty and under sixty,.....	314,505	
Of sixty and under seventy,.....	174,228	
Of seventy and under eighty,.....	80,051	
Of eighty and under ninety,.....	21,679	
Of ninety and under one hundred,.....	2,597	
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	476	
		7,249,966
Females —Under five years of age,.....	1,203,349	
Of five and under ten,.....	986,941	
Of ten and under fifteen,.....	836,588	
Of fifteen and under twenty,.....	792,168	
Of twenty and under thirty,.....	1,253,395	
Of thirty and under forty,.....	779,097	
Of forty and under fifty,.....	502,143	
Of fifty and under sixty,.....	304,810	
Of sixty and under seventy,.....	172,299	
Of seventy and under eighty,.....	80,562	
Of eighty and under ninety,.....	23,914	
Of ninety and under one hundred,.....	3,231	
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	315	
		6,939,842
Total number of free white persons,.....		14,189,108

FREE COLORED PERSONS.

Males —Under ten years of age,.....	56,323	
Of ten and under twenty-four,.....	52,799	
Of twenty-four and under thirty-six,.....	35,308	
Of thirty-six and under fifty-five,.....	28,258	
Of fifty-five and under one hundred,.....	13,493	
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	286	
		183,467
Females —Under ten years of age,.....	55,069	
Of ten and under twenty-four,.....	56,562	
Of twenty-four and under thirty-six,.....	41,673	
Of thirty-six and under fifty-five,.....	30,385	
Of fifty-five and under one hundred,.....	15,728	
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	361	
		199,778
Total number of free colored persons,.....		386,245

SLAVES.

Males —Under ten years of age,.....	422,599	
Of ten and under twenty-four,.....	391,131	
Of twenty-four and under thirty-six,.....	235,373	
Of thirty-six and under fifty-five,.....	145,264	
Of fifty-five and under one hundred,.....	51,288	
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	753	
		1,246,408

Females —Under ten years of age,.....	421,470
Of ten and under twenty-four,.....	390,075
Of twenty-four and under thirty-six,.....	239,787
Of thirty-six and under fifty-five,.....	139,201
Of fifty-five and under one hundred,.....	49,692
Of one hundred and upwards,.....	580
	<hr/> 1,240,805
Total number of slaves,.....	2,487,213
	<hr/>
*Total aggregate,.....	17,062,566
White persons included in the foregoing, who are deaf and dumb, under four-teen years of age,.....	1,919
White persons included in the foregoing, who are deaf and dumb, of fourteen and under twenty-five,.....	2,056
White persons included in the foregoing, who are deaf and dumb, over twenty-five,.....	2,707
White persons included in the foregoing, who are blind,.....	5,024
White persons included in the foregoing, who are insane and idiots, at public charge,.....	4,329
White persons included in the foregoing, who are insane and idiots, at private charge,.....	10,179
Total number of persons employed in mining,.....	15,203
Total number of persons employed in agriculture,.....	3,717,756
Total number of persons employed in commerce,.....	117,575
Total number of persons employed in manufactures and trades,.....	791,545
Total number of persons employed in navigation of the ocean,.....	56,025
Total number of persons employed in navigation of canals, lakes, and rivers,.....	33,067
Total number of persons employed in learned professions,.....	65,236
Slaves and colored persons included in the foregoing, who are deaf and dumb,.....	977
Slaves and colored persons included in the foregoing, who are blind,.....	1,892
Slaves and colored persons included in the foregoing, who are insane and idiots, at private charge,.....	2,093
Slaves and colored persons included in the foregoing, who are insane and idiots, at public charge,.....	833
Total number of pensioners for revolutionary or military services,.....	20,797
Total number of universities or colleges,.....	173
Total number of students in universities or colleges,.....	16,233
Total number of academies and grammar schools,.....	2,342
Total number of students in academies and grammar schools,.....	164,159
Total number of primary and common schools,.....	47,209
Total number of scholars in common schools,.....	1,848,244
Total number of scholars at public charge,.....	468,264
Total number of white persons over twenty years of age, who cannot read and write,.....	549,693

* Total number of persons on board of vessels of war in the United States naval service, June 1, 1840, 6,100; thus making the total aggregate of the population of the United States 17,068,666.

VALUE PER HEAD OF THE PRODUCTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

We published, in the September number of this magazine, a table from the department of state, showing the value of the agricultural productions in the several states of the Union, excepting Kentucky, Michigan, and North Carolina. With the aid of this table, the editor of the St. Louis Gazette has made "an estimate of the money value of the several products, and placed the result side by side with the population of the states respectively, to show the yield per head, in round numbers."

It will be seen by the following table that only four states produce more than \$100 to each head of the population, viz: Vermont, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana. Of these, Vermont takes the lead, and must certainly be considered the most enterprising, industrious, and thrifty agricultural state in the Union. Massachusetts is lowest in the

scale; but that state is engaged extensively in commerce and manufactures. The states most devoted to planting and farming, or whose products are chiefly agricultural, are mostly the southern and western. All the New England and middle states, as also Ohio, are very considerable manufacturers, and the most of them have a large commercial and navigation interest—causes which operate to draw away hands from agriculture. The average production *per capita* is \$87 50. Fourteen members of the Union size above this average, the remaining ten below it.

FACTS IN REGARD TO THE CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

The editor of the Cincinnati Chronicle has been examining the six returns of the census, taken at intervals of ten years each since the adoption of the constitution. The investigations show some curious facts:—

1. The population of the United States increases exactly 34 per cent each ten years, and which doubles every twenty-four years. The law is so uniform and permanent, that when applied to the population of 1790, and brought down to the present time, it produces nearly the very result as shown by the census of 1840. And thus we may tell with great accuracy what will be the census of 1850. It will be nearly twenty-three millions.

2. But although this is the aggregate result, it is by no means true of each particular part of the country, for New England increases at the rate of 15 per cent each ten years, while the northwestern states increase 100 per cent in that period.

3. The slave population increased at 30 per cent, but since at less than 25 per cent. The free population have, however, increased at the rate of 36 per cent. At this rate, therefore, the difference between the free and slave population is constantly increasing.

4. Another fact is that the colored population increase just in proportion to the distance south; and that slavery is certainly and rapidly decreasing in the states bordering on the free states.

This state of things continued, would, in half a century, extinguish slavery in these states, and concentrate the whole black population of the United States on the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent states on the southern Atlantic.

PRUSSIAN-RHENISH POPULATION.

The Dusseldorf Gazette gives the following statistical account of the population of the Prussian-Rhenish provinces:—

“In 1826 it amounted to only 1,849,711 souls, but in 1840 had increased to 2,550,553, without reckoning the district of St. Wendel, which contains 36,499. Thus there has been an increase of 664,343 souls, or 35 per cent, in the space of twenty-four years. It is composed of 1,929,660 Roman Catholics; 593,353 Protestants; 1,318 Mnemonites, and 26,223 Jews. The department of Dusseldorf alone counts 802,998 inhabitants. The males amount to 1,278,637.”

MERCANTILE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK.

We have great pleasure in laying before our readers the syllabus, in part, of the 15th annual course of Lectures to be delivered at Clinton Hall, during the present season. From the topics so far selected, and the distinguished character of the lecturers, we anticipate a rich and interesting series. We would here take occasion to add, that the 21st anniversary of this noble institution will be celebrated on Tuesday the ninth of the present month, by an oration from the Hon. WILLIAM INGLIS of New York; and a poem by Mr. WILLIAM CUTTER, a member of the association. It is understood also, that a supper is to be provided on the occasion; and we would respectfully suggest, that the board of managers, in view of the progress of the great temperance movement of the day, follow the example of the American Institute at their recent celebration, by omitting the use of the "flowing bowl," "a custom more honored in the breach than the observance."

FIFTEENTH ANNUAL COURSE OF LECTURES TO BE DELIVERED AT CLINTON HALL, ON TUESDAY EVENING OF EACH WEEK, COMMENCING NOVEMBER 16TH.

Introductory—By DAVID PAUL BROWN, Esq., of Philadelphia.

One Lecture—Hon. RUFUS CHOATE, of Massachusetts.

One Lecture—Hon. A. BRUYN HASBROUCK, (President Rutgers College, New Jersey.)

One Lecture—ELIHU BURRITT, A.M., of Massachusetts, (the learned blacksmith)—"Is a Roman patriotism congenial with the republican principles or the spirit of our institutions?"

One Lecture—Hon. GEORGE M. DALLAS, of Pennsylvania, (late United States minister to Russia,) on "Russia."

One Lecture—Rev. J. M. WAINWRIGHT, D.D.

Two Lectures—Major G. TOCHMAN, (a Polish exile,) Professor, ——— College, Kentucky, on the "History and Revolution of Poland."

One Lecture—JOSEPH R. CHANDLER, Esq., of Philadelphia, on "Maternal Affection."

One Lecture—Rev. HENRY W. BELLOWES, on "Manners and Morals of a Republic."

Two Lectures—Professor SILLIMAN—1st, "A Sketch of the Structure of the Earth, including the leading facts of Geology."

2d, "Theory of the powers and operations by which the arrangement has been effected; with the results of utility and beauty."

One Lecture—WILLIAM L. STONE, Esq., on the "Buccaniers of America."

One Lecture—Rev. J. N. MAFFIT, Professor St. Charles College, Missouri.

One Lecture—JOHN NEAL, Esq., of Portland, on "Self Reliance."

One Lecture—GRANVILLE SHARP PATTISON, M.D., (Professor University Medical School,) on "The Constitution and Organization of the Animal Body."

One Lecture—Rev. JOHN O. CHEULS, on "Saint Bartholomew's Day, and Admiral Coligny."

LYFORD'S PRICE CURRENT.

In the Merchants' Magazine for June, 1841, we published a valuable table of flour inspections in Baltimore for the last forty-two years, which we omitted to credit to the "*Baltimore Commercial Journal, and Lyford's Price Current,*" the paper in which it originally appeared. We embrace this opportunity of correcting the omission, and at the same time of expressing our admiration of the industry and ability displayed by Mr Lyford in the conduct of that excellent commercial journal. No work of the kind is more generally quoted abroad for its accurate and just review of the markets, as well as its carefully compiled and useful tables. We shall be happy to receive subscribers for it, and forward their names to the worthy publisher.

☞ An interesting and important paper on "*Morocco, and its Facilities for American Commercial Enterprise,*" and another on "*The British Corn Laws,*" are unavoidably deferred, but will appear in the December number of this magazine.

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

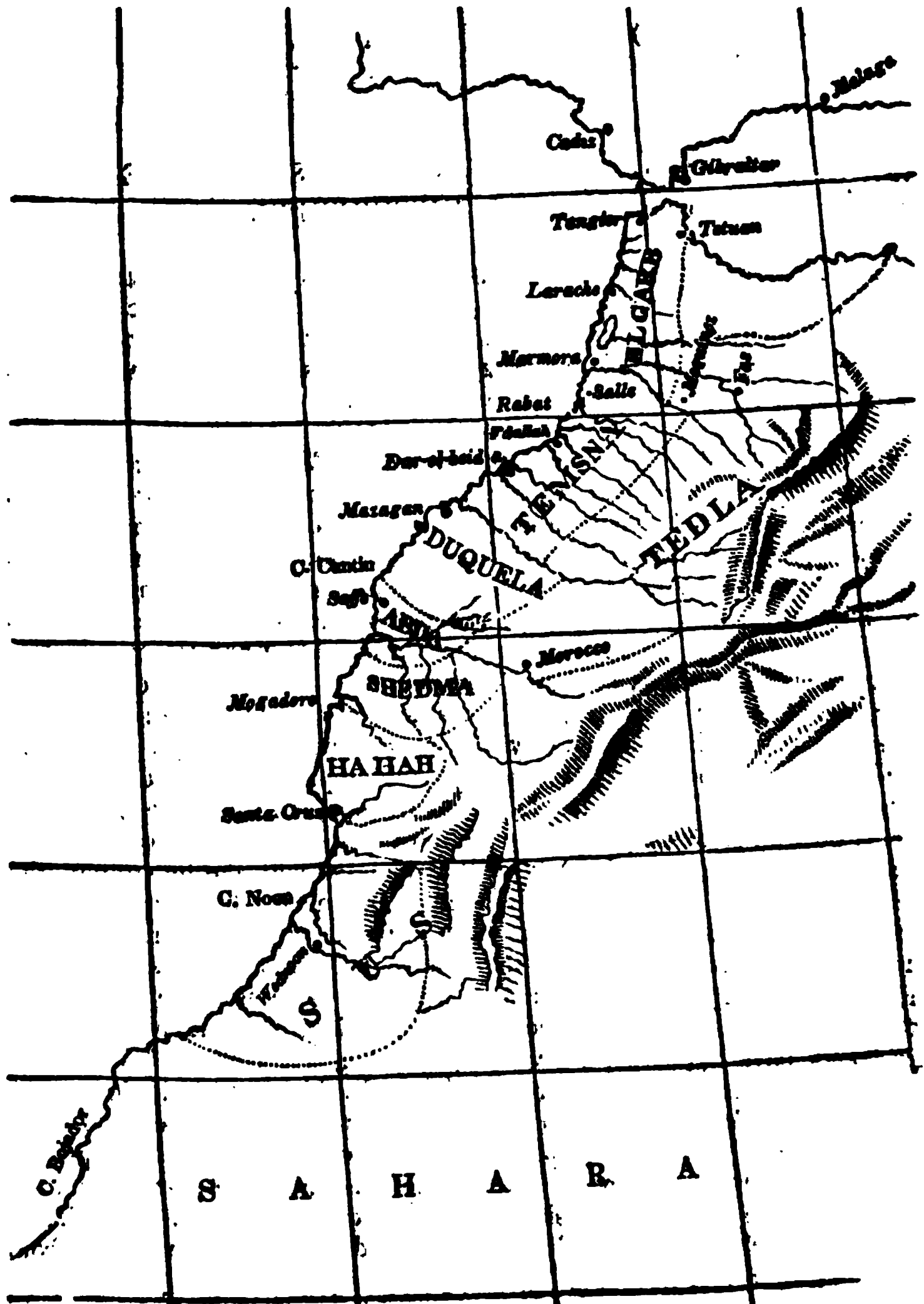
DECEMBER, 1841.

ART. I.—MOROCCO, AND ITS FACILITIES FOR AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ENTERPRISE.

MOROCCO—NATURE OF ITS GOVERNMENT—POPULATION OF THE EMPIRE—ITS
HARBORS AND PORTS—EXPORT AND IMPORT DUTIES—THE MERCHANTS OF
MOROCCO—CHARACTER OF THE TRADE AS AT PRESENT CONDUCTED—SUG-
GESTIONS FOR IMPROVING AND INCREASING THE TRADE—TRADE WITH WED-
NOON, AND TO THE COAST SOUTH OF MOROCCO.

IF we consider the situation of the empire of Morocco, its proximity to the civilized communities of Europe, the value of the commercial relations it already sustains with them, and the vast resources of the country, which a properly directed spirit of enterprise might now easily and rapidly develop, it seems really astonishing that the commercial men of our country have hitherto, with a few fortunate exceptions, almost wholly neglected so promising a field for the exercise of that business tact and talent, which is gradually insuring them a trading pre-eminence in the most distant and barbarous countries in the world. This neglect can only be accounted for by the scanty and unsatisfactory nature of our information respecting *Maghrib el Acsa*, or *the extreme west*, as the empire of Morocco is called by its inhabitants. Neither its vicinity to Europe, nor an active commerce carried on with it for many ages by the most enlightened European nations, have made them even moderately well acquainted with the geography, the natural history, or the antiquities of one of the most interesting countries on the face of the globe. It has been justly observed by Mr. Matra, an English consul at Morocco, that there have been more books written on Barbary than on any other country, and yet there is no country with which we are so little acquainted. Since Mr. Matra's time, a number of new books have appeared, but without affecting the truth of his observation, or its applicability to the present time. In this country the ignorance is still more profound; and it may be safely asserted that there is no country, of the same extent and importance, of which our notions in respect to the nature of the government, the condition and habits of the people, the products of the soil, the physical geography of the country, the facilities for trade, and the character of the harbors and ports, are so very far from

the truth. Convinced that the subject is one that can be made of great importance to the commercial interests of the country, we propose to throw out, in a concise and cursory way, a few observations and reflections upon the trading resources and facilities of Morocco, and to offer some suggestions for the improvement of the trade between the two countries. In order to a proper understanding of the latter part of the subject, it will be necessary to make some remarks upon those circumstances that exert an immediate controlling effect upon commerce; such as the nature of the government, character of the people, &c.; and a full comprehension of our observations will be much facilitated by a reference to the following sketch of the coast, which we have thought it useful to subjoin:



The government of Morecco is generally supposed to be an unlimited despotism. This is not exactly true. The power of the emperor is limited in many particulars, and by a great many circumstances; and is very different in different parts of the empire. In some provinces his authority is readily acknowledged and obeyed; in others only a nominal obedience is rendered; while in others, in the very heart of the country, he has not the slightest influence, and even his name is hardly known. All along the Atlantic coast, from the straits of Gibraltar to Mogadere, his authority is well established. In the rich and populous district of Suse, he has not much more than a nominal sovereignty; and among the Berebber tribes of Mount Atlas, and in a large district situated directly between his two principal cities, Fas and Morocco, his power is held in the most perfect contempt. He is also controlled by public opinion, and the religious prejudices of his people, which the most daring despot is forced to respect. Certain local customs and privileges also very much modify his power, in places where it is best established. In some parts, for instance, he can permit the exportation of cattle and grain; in others, it would so offend the prejudices of the inhabitants, that he would not dare attempt it. From the town of Rabat it would be almost impossible to export sheep or cattle, which can be readily taken from Cassa Blanca and Mazagan to the south, or from Tangier to the north. The despotism which reigns in Morocco, although not perfectly unlimited, is, however, exceedingly simple in its form, and for that reason offers fewer impediments to the progress of civilization, than would arise from a system of tyranny with a more complex organization. If the emperor should choose to take any steps for the improvement of his people, he would meet but little of that kind of opposition which has so long thwarted the efforts of the Ottoman emperors. His authority is not shared with a mufti, or a religious body, like the Ulema; and he would not be interrupted by the insolent pretensions of a privileged class of nobles and soldiery. May it not be hoped that an emperor will soon arise, who will take advantage of the favorable circumstances of his situation, and exercise his power for the redemption of a country which may otherwise, in a comparatively short space of time, stand an isolated monument of Mohammedan barbarism? The present emperor, Muley Abdrahaman, cannot be expected to do much good; but he has the very considerable honor, for an emperor of Morocco, of not doing much harm: and it will be something for his reign that he has not impeded, by any active exertions, like his immediate predecessor, Muley Suleiman, the improving influence of a commerce, however feeble and miserably conducted. His eldest son, who has already been admitted to the honor of the umbrella, the exclusive privilege of imperial power, is supposed to have a comparatively enlarged mind. He is about twenty-five years of age; resides in vice-regal style in the old king-making city of Fas; and, although the succession is generally very uncertain, will most probably, without difficulty, step into his father's place.

The population of Morocco, according to Count Graberg de Hemseo,*

* Cavalier Count James Graberg de Hemseo, author of *Specchio Geografico e Statistico dell' Impero di Morocco*, written in Italian, and published at Genoa. The count is a Swede, and formerly resided at Tangier, as *chargé d'affaires* of Sweden, and diplomatic agent for Sardinia. In 1822, he was unceremoniously ejected from the country by the then emperor, Muley Suleiman. It had been represented to the emperor, that the

and other authors, consists of four distinct races, viz: Amazirgs, Moors, Arabs, and Jews. The Amazirgs, or Mazirgs, M. de Hemso observes, are the direct descendants of the most ancient inhabitants, not only of *Maghrib el Acsa*, but even of all Northern Africa, from the banks of the Nile. A writer, however, in the London Quarterly, questions whether they ever occupied this extent of territory. The Amazirg tribes extended from the Atlantic ocean to Sewah, or the oasis of Jupiter Ammon; but of their permanent residence eastward of this or on the Nile, (the irruptions of predatory tribes being left out of consideration,) there is no historical evidence. They were also the original inhabitants of the Canary islands, and furnished the mummies which have frequently been found in the caves of Teneriffe. It is by them also that the great desert of Sahara is peopled. The chief Amazirg tribes now dwelling in Morocco, are the Berebbers and Shelluhs; the former occupying the hills in the northern part, and extending eastward towards Algiers; the latter spreading from the neighborhood of Mequinez. It has been a subject of much dispute whether there is any radical difference in the language of these two tribes. Mr. Jackson maintains that they are perfectly distinct. M. de Hemso, on the other hand, asserts their close resemblance. He says: "A Spanish priest in Tangier who, in his various journeys through *Maghrib el Acsa*, had often spent the night among the Shelluhs of Beni Hassan and Temsna, and who had also had much intercourse with the Berebbers, with whose language he was tolerably well acquainted, assured me, that between these two dialects there is at least as much resemblance as between English and Low Dutch. With respect to the characters of the two tribes, he used to say that the Shelluhs appeared to him to be the French of Maghrib, and the Berebbers the Belgians." The question of language is, however, unimportant to our present purpose, and we must leave the Maroqueen philologists to settle the question among themselves.

The next to the Amazirgs, in point of numbers, are the Moors. It is generally conceded that they are the descendants of the Moors who were driven out of Spain after the conquest of Granada. They are by far the most interesting class, in a commercial view. They are much the largest proportion of the population of the cities and seaports. They hold all the offices, and it is with them that the merchant comes directly in contact. A knowledge of their character is, therefore, essential for any one having dealings with them; a knowledge which, in some instances, has been pretty dearly bought. M. de Hemso draws a pretty highly-colored, but tolerably correct picture of them. He says: "I who, during a period of twelve years, have lived among and dealt with Moors, of various districts, and who have studied with attention their character and dispositions, can conscientiously assert, that their character is made up of every thing that

count had, in some European publication, spoken disparagingly of his government; in addition to which the count had the audacity to ask payment for twenty guns, which, at the emperor's order, he had procured from Sweden. A party of soldiers made their appearance at the Swedish consulate just at dark, and, without allowing the count a single moment for any kind of preparation, hurried him down to the water-port, and despatched him in a boat for Gibraltar. The count and his nation were compelled to pocket the affront. This anecdote illustrates the improvement which has within a few years taken place in the diplomatic intercourse of the country. An emperor of Morocco would not now dare to think of committing such an outrage.

is meanest and vilest in the heart of man. They are now, and will be for ages to come, exactly the same barbarians they were in the days of Salust and Procopius: that is to say, they are fickle, perfidious, cruel, and incapable of being restrained either by fear or kindness. Even their countenance has in it something sinister and revolting, which cannot be contemplated without an involuntary shudder." This is certainly not very flattering; but it is impossible to deny that it is pretty nearly true. The worthy count has, perhaps, laid on the color a little too thick in some places; but then he had had twelve years experience, ending in a gross outrage, and a regular swindle of twenty pieces of cannon by the imperial Diddler, and a little exaggeration can be readily pardoned. He ought not, however, to have been quite so indiscriminate in his denunciations. The truth is, that the varieties in the character of the people, in the different districts into which the country is divided, is one of the most important elements in the calculation of the prospects of mercantile success—an element which has hitherto been entirely overlooked in the general and sweeping abuse of common superficial observers. True it is, that as a nation, the Moors are the most perfectly demoralized people upon the face of the globe, with the exception, perhaps, of their brethren in the other Barbary states. The most atrocious and disgusting vices are the common practice; and their utter contempt of truth, and of the commonest principles of honesty, has been and is the theme of all who have come in contact with them. But it must be observed, that there are different degrees of depravity in different districts, and that a thorough knowledge of these, and of the local characteristics of particular towns or provinces, will very much qualify our notions upon the subject. Take, by way of illustration, the town of Rabat. This city is situated on the Atlantic coast, between Cape Spartel and Mogadore, at the mouth of the river Bure-greb. It is directly opposite the town of Salle, once so celebrated for its corsairs, but which has now fallen into decay, partly from the suppression of its piratical trade, partly from the filling up of its side of the harbor with sand, brought down and deposited by the river, and partly from the superior activity and enterprise of its rival, Rabat. Salle, half in ruins, is now scantily inhabited by a miserable, Christian-hating, bigoted population. It is impossible for a Christian to set foot within the town, even under the protection of Moorish guards; and the traveller arriving by land, is compelled to make a detour round the walls to reach the ferry, from fear of being stoned; and even then he will be fortunate if he escapes insult from the Salle vagabonds surrounding the boats on the beach. On crossing the river, a distance of less than a quarter of a mile, the change is found to be very great. Rabat is a large and flourishing town, of about twenty-five thousand inhabitants. The native bigotry and ferocity of the people have been qualified by the residence among them of a number of Moorish merchants, who are in the habit of making frequent expeditions to Gibraltar, Marseilles, Genoa, and Leghorn, and who, by their intercourse with Europeans, have become disabused of some of their prejudices, accustomed to the sight of Christians, and polished into a toleration of the refinements and habits of civilized life. Rabat has also some political privileges peculiar to itself, the remains of the customs and laws by which it was governed two or three centuries since, when it existed as a kind of republic, varying its degree of independence from time to time, as it was more or less able to resist the encroachments of the kings of Fas or Morocco.

There exists a peculiar institution, or society, in this city, which we believe has never yet been noticed by any writer. It is called the *Itarbane*, or the *Forty*. This society, although called the *Forty*, numbers several hundred. Its object is, in case of the emperor's death, or any political convulsion, to enforce the laws, to protect the persons and property of the Jews, and to prevent those excesses which, upon such occasions, are always committed in other cities. Should there occur any political difficulties, the *Itarbane* take possession of the city, place sentinels in all the streets, prevent the assembling of mobs, and punish, with the severest penalties, any infraction of their regulations. Owing to this custom, *El Mellah*, or that quarter of the city devoted to the Jews, has never been pillaged—a thing that cannot be said of any other city in the country. All the members of this *Itarbane* are highly respected and respectable, and the meanest of them are treated by the bashaw and his officers with the highest consideration. Property in Rabat is probably as safe as in any city of Europe. How erroneous is it then, to include in one sweeping denunciation, towns and provinces which differ so much from each other in social and political characteristics—or to consider as universal many of the obstacles to commercial enterprise which are, in a great measure, dependent upon local circumstances!

“In addition to these two classes of inhabitants, there are quite a number of Arabs, chiefly Bedwins, who inhabit the sun-burnt plains of Maghrib. They live in low, black tents, generally grouped together into a small village, or *dash*, of three or four hundred inhabitants. They raise a little grain, but their chief dependence is upon their flocks. When the land is exhausted in one place, they readily strike their tents and seek a new place to encamp; and, in the course of their wanderings, undergo hardly any change either in manners or language.” It is from them that some of the principal articles of trade, as wool, wax, and sheep-skins, are obtained.

The Jews are the next most numerous class. They are chiefly the descendants of those who were driven out of Spain. Although kept in the most degrading subjection to the Moors, the greater part of the trade of the country is in their hands; from which, however, owing to the exactions of the government, very few amass any wealth. The Jews who dwell among the Berchbers of Mount Atlas, and who are supposed to have been established in the country from remote antiquity, enjoy a comparatively happy lot. They are generally agriculturists, and live in freedom and comfort.

The following is M. de Menae's summary of the whole population :

Amazings,	{ Berebbers,	2,300,000
	{ Shellubs,	1,450,000
Moors, Ludaya, Arabs, &c.,		3,550,000
Bedwin, and other pure Arabs,		740,000
Jews,		339,500
Negroes,		120,000
Christians,		300
Renegades,		200
Total,			8,500,000

This estimate is undoubtedly exaggerated. A writer in the *London Quarterly* thinks, and probably with justice, that Bulbi's estimate of six

millions, and Lieut. Washington's five or six millions, is abundantly high. At best such estimates must be but the purest conjecture.

One of the greatest difficulties in the way of trade with Morocco, is the want of safe harbors for vessels of a large size. Our seamen have a perfect horror of the North African coast, and the less they know of it the greater their dread. The freight on a cargo of wool from Mazagan to Mogadore, will be at least fifty cents per quintal more than from Gibraltar, the same distance; and many vessels it would be impossible to charter at any price. This difficulty would have been before this entirely obviated, were it not for the absurd quarantine laws of Gibraltar, which amount, during a great part of the year, to an almost entire prohibition of the trade in small vessels, which would otherwise be carried on, and which would make that port the depot for the commerce of Morocco. Were it not for the quarantine of some articles, and the refusal of admission to others that happen to be pronounced particularly susceptible, by an ignorant board of health officers, the exports of Morocco could be easily taken, as, in despite of this great disadvantage, they are to some extent now, in feluccas, mesticos, and other lateen craft, to Gibraltar, and there transhipped into larger vessels for distant ports. These small boats could enter ports inaccessible to larger vessels—could find many places of safety in bad weather—could lie much nearer the shore, which, in ports like Mogadore, Saffé, and Mazagan, would diminish the trouble and danger of loading—and could pick up their cargoes at the most convenient points on the coast. But several articles of the highest importance are not allowed to be landed at all, and many articles are strictly quarantined—wool, for instance, is strictly excluded; and a single Moorish sash, or piece of cloth, on board a market-boat from Morocco, will quarantine the unlucky boat, cargo, passengers, and crew. The utility of quarantine, in any quarter of the world, and under any circumstances, is exceedingly doubtful; but it is particularly absurd in this case, as it is enforced simply to guard against nothing. What can be more ridiculous than that, because they have, two or three times, had yellow fever at Gibraltar, precautions should be taken against the plague, which, in Morocco, they have not had for many years; and which, now that the overland communication with Egypt is broken up, they may never have again? Notwithstanding its manifest absurdity and inconvenience, however, it is idle to expect a reformation in this matter for many years; and any trade we may have with the empire of Morocco, unless some new plan can be devised, will have to encounter all the disadvantages of its ports. These, however, are not nearly so great as is generally supposed. It cannot be denied, that those on the Atlantic coast are very far from being perfectly safe; but their character has been to some extent misrepresented, and their dangers exaggerated. Proper prudence and good ground-tackle, are all that is necessary to make some of the worst roadsteads of the coast fully equal to many in different parts of the world, which enjoy a comparatively respectable character for safety and facility of access. Let these dangers, however, be estimated at their true value, and they will always be a great drawback upon commercial enterprise.

Mogadore is the most southern port of the empire, and the one that has for a number of years enjoyed the most trade. We quote the observations respecting it, of the late well-known Capt. Riley, who was of course well qualified to judge. "The harbor spreads itself before the town to the south, and is shielded from the sea by an island about two miles long and

half a mile abroad, only distant from the water-port point about five hundred yards. Between the island and water-port vessels enter, keeping the island side close on board, until they run down half the length of it, when they may anchor in two and a half fathoms, at low water, within a cable's length of the island, and with good cables and anchors, ride safe during three quarters of the year. In the months of December, January, and February, strong gales prevail from the westward, which heave in such heavy swells round the two ends of the island, that what seamen call the send, or swing of the sea, breaks the strongest cables, and forces all the vessels in port on shore." But a year since, the truth of the captain's observations was abundantly proved in the case of his own vessel, the brig *William Tell*, in which he traded for several years with Mogadore. She was forced on shore, a complete wreck; and a French vessel of war, that was in the harbor at the time, escaped the same fate only by getting out six anchors, and throwing her guns overboard; and even then she was so strained, that she was compelled to go to Cadiz for repairs.

Saffe is the next port of any consequence. It is formed by the projection of Cape Cantin. The bay is spacious, and pretty well protected from the winds by the Cape; but the anchorage is very bad, and vessels have to lie pretty well out from land. The landing is troublesome, as the surf generally rolls in strong to the beach. Loading a cargo is of course no easy matter.

Mazagan is safe in the summer months, but it is ineffectually sheltered in winter, and a ledge of rocks is apt to receive vessels exposed to a gale from the southwest. Like Saffe, loading is sometimes exceedingly difficult.

At Da el beda the landing is better, but it is safe only in the summer months.

Fidallah is comparatively safe, even in winter, being sheltered by a peninsula which has been frequently called an island; but the landing is bad, and with much wind perfectly impossible.

Rabat, Marmora, and Larache, once famous ports, are all closed up by bars, which will admit the passage of small vessels only. At Rabat the bar is very narrow, and vessels of nine feet draft, by watching their opportunity, can pass it. and when once in are perfectly safe, and lie directly alongside of a ledge of rocks making a kind of natural dock.

But if the Atlantic coast is but poorly provided with harbors, the same complaint cannot be made respecting the small portion of the northern shore which is washed by the straits of Gibraltar. Tangier is one of the most convenient and secure harbors in the neighborhood of the straits. It is in many respects far superior to the bay of Gibraltar, and yet is most carefully eschewed by vessels of both our commercial and national marine. Capt. Riley says, "Tangier bay is the best harbor in the Moorish dominions, its bottom is clear, and it might contain at one time a thousand large vessels, which would ride in safety, being sheltered from all but the northerly winds, which have only the rake of the breadth of the strait, and the holding ground is excellent." Were it not that the province of *El Garb* surrounding Tangier is unproductive of most of the articles required for export, and that there are no roads through it to the more fertile provinces of the south, Tangier would be one of the principal cities of the empire, and the centre of all its trade. It has been distinguished from the earliest time as a commercial city, and for the advantages of its harbor. Under the Phœnicians it was a great trading mart, second only to Carthage. It preserved

the character of its port up to its desertion by the English in the time of Charles II. By the Portuguese it was frequently attacked, but without success. In 1470 the Portuguese made an attack upon Azila, a town about twenty miles south of Tangier, and carried it by storm. The Moors were seized with a panic upon the receipt of the news, and the inhabitants of Tangier, which had hitherto been reputed impregnable, abandoned the town, which was quietly taken possession of by a detachment of Portuguese. It was given to the English as a dowry for Catherine of Portugal, queen of Charles II., and by them retained about twenty years. The Moors, however, gave them so much trouble that it was evacuated, and a fine mole of eighteen hundred feet in length was blown up. The foundations of this mole are still above low water, and afford considerable protection to small vessels. After the desertion of the English the reputation of the bay declined—until, within a few years, the English and French naval officers have found that it is as comfortable a place to lie in as is required. Unfounded notions of foul ground, bad anchorage, and heavy swells, will, however, probably render it for years a bugbear to our service.

But what, perhaps more than all other circumstances combined, has hampered trade, and prevented an extension of the commercial relations of Morocco, are the heavy and fluctuating duties levied at the caprice of the emperor upon the principal articles of export. It has not unfrequently been the case that merchants have been suffered to purchase largely under one tariff, and have then been compelled to pay an increased duty before their property would be allowed to be embarked. This has been attempted not more than two or three years since in the case of a large quantity of grain, which, under the influence of the demand for it in England, had been purchased by agents of European houses. A spirited remonstrance from the consular corps, however, convinced the emperor of the impossibility of any longer continuing the system of seducing merchants into the purchase of the products of the country for exportation under one rate of duties, and then extorting more money from them by an arbitrary and sudden increase of tax. Barbaric pride has suffered such a blow by the capture of Algiers; the entire decay of their naval power, which once carried terror to all the Mediterranean coasts; and by the more manly and decided tone which has been assumed by the representatives of Christian nations, that the merchant has not nearly so much danger to apprehend from the capricious exercise of despotic power, and the uncertainty and variableness of commercial regulations. The present emperor, Muley Abdrahaman, is by no means a man of enlarged views, but he has had the advantage of having been, during the reign of his uncle Muley Suleiman, at the head of the customhouse at Mogadore, and he understands the fact pretty well that too many exactions will diminish instead of increasing his revenue. His chief vice, in the eyes of his subjects, is avarice; but this makes him, as far as he knows how, a patron and encourager of trade. It acts as a counterpoise to his religious and political bigotry, which would otherwise lead him to carry out the principles of Muley Suleiman, who openly avowed his determination to cut off all communication with Christians, and to keep his subjects as poor as possible. Of a mild, quiet disposition, Muley Abdrahaman carefully eschews, where it is possible, any political or commercial difficulties, either with his own subjects or with foreigners; and, as compared with his whimsical predecessors, he may be said to be free from caprice. The fact is, that within a few years past,

both the rulers and the people, especially of the towns, have undergone a considerable change and improvement. The tone of public opinion has altered, and a feeling of relationship with Christian countries is beginning to be perceptible. The residence among them of foreigners for commercial purposes is not merely tolerated but desired, and although the hatred of Christians is just as strong, it is not so openly and generally expressed.

The commerce of this empire, as it is at present conducted, is principally in the hands of the Jews, although in some of the towns there are quite a number of Moorish merchants. The Moors have naturally a strong turn for trade, but it is impossible for them to successfully compete with their Jewish rivals, who have in several particulars very decided advantages. The cunning rascality and faithlessness of the Jew merchants of Barbary has passed into a proverb; and notwithstanding the endeavors of their Moorish masters to emulate them, they are likely to remain unsurpassed. But with all their skill and industry they very seldom get rich; or if they do, it is very seldom that they keep their wealth. The emperor in the end generally proves too much for them. Very few of them commence with any capital of their own. It is always borrowed from the emperor, who loans it in sums of from one to ten thousand dollars, and generally without interest. The only consideration for it is, that the borrower shall "make business," as the phrase is, for the customhouse, and the only security is the power of the emperor to come down at any moment upon his debtor, and squeeze principal, interest, profits and all out of him; when, if he yields pretty well, the emperor will perhaps set him up in business again, again to go through the same process. The greater facility with which this system is carried on with the oppressed and degraded Jews renders it almost impossible for his Moorish subjects to obtain the same favors, and they are therefore compelled to trade upon their own capital. The Jew, with his borrowed capital, is compelled to "make business," without any regard to the demands of trade or the state of the markets. He must buy and sell even if he is sure of a loss, and in many cases he is not allowed to dispose of, to any one in the country, articles he may have collected for export. He must export them himself, so as to pay the export duty into the customhouse. If he does not, he is accused of not "making business," and orders are at once issued to have him squeezed. There are, however, some Jewish agents for foreign houses, who are rather more independent, but even they are subject to many exactions and restrictions, and are often called upon for contributions, in the shape of presents to bashaws and other officials. But by far the most independent business men are the few Christian merchants who have stationed themselves at several points on the coast. Of these the principal is the well known English and American vice-consul, Mr. Willshire. He has been largely engaged in a lucrative business for a number of years. In connection with a house in the city of New York, he has been doing a good deal in wool, sheep-skins, and oil, which it is supposed has been very profitable. There are two or three other Christians in the same place. At Mazagan, a European has recently established himself, where he acts as American vice-consul, and agent for a wealthy merchant in Gibraltar. At Rabat and Tangier there has resided for several years a Mr. Ray, the representative of a wealthy French house of Marseilles, who has been doing a very large business, principally in wool and wax. At Larache and Tetuan there are also several Christians who officiate as consular and commercial agents.

They do a small business in wax, coarse wool, and oak bark for tanning. Tetuan was formerly the residence of the corps of consuls-general, but in 1770, an Englishman having killed a Moor, the Europeans were ordered to quit the place. The consuls have since resided in Tangier.*

Of the amount of trade that Morocco carries on with the whole world, it is impossible to arrive at any very accurate conclusion. A table quoted in a number of this magazine, (Vol. 3. No. 6, p. 554,) states the imports of English goods at £74,000. This estimate must be much too low, although we have no data at hand from which we can prove the fact. In 1836 the commerce of Morocco with France amounted to between 7 and 8,000,000 of francs. But to avoid the tediousness of statistical details, which at best are purely conjectural, we shall pass over the discrepant statements of different observers, and confine ourselves to a few practical remarks upon the more important articles of traffic.

The principal articles of import are English cotton manufactures, woollen cloth, iron, tea, sugar, raw silk, and cochineal. This last is an imperial monopoly: no one is allowed to import it but the emperor, or to sell it but his immediate agents; and as it is essential in the manufacture of the Fas cap, and in the coloring of the fine Morocco leather, he contrives to make a profit of five or six hundred per cent. Sulphur and powder are also prohibited articles. Iron bears a duty of \$2 50 per cwt., and raw silk fifty cents per pound. The duty on all other articles is ten per cent *ad valorem*. Of the cotton goods, such as common white muslins, nankeens, &c., of which a large amount is used, the principal part is English, although the Moors have a strong prejudice in favor of American manufactures. They have an idea that American cottons are made from cotton which has never been pressed into a bale, and that they are much stronger and more durable. So common is this notion that the English have found it convenient to stamp their cotton goods, intended for the Morocco market, with the word American, in Arabic characters. The Moors are great consumers of tea and sugar. Contrary to the custom of the Mohammedans of the Levant, they never drink coffee. Tea is the favorite beverage, and to be palatable it must be made thick with sugar. Indirectly, through Gibraltar, they take from us quite an amount of these articles.

The principal exports from Morocco are wool, oil, wax, leather, goat-skins, almonds, gums, cattle, and grain. Of these, wool† is the most important article. It is produced in every part of the empire; but the finest, and that which best bears exportation to this country, is grown in the province of Tedlar. Next in quality is the wool of Temsna. That which grows in the northern province of the empire, or El Garb, of which Tangier is the port, is coarse and difficult to obtain. By a reference to the map it

* The diplomatic relations of Christian countries with this empire are kept up by means of consuls-general, who, as diplomatic agents, receive salaries, and are not allowed to engage in business. Their whole number at present is fourteen. Russia and Prussia are the only nations who have no representatives. Some of them have the dignity of *chargé d'affaires*, and all of them, except the United States consul, have large salaries, and an allowance for vice-consul, secretary, &c. The presence of the consuls and numerous dependents makes Tangier quite like a Christian town.

† The wools of Morocco are the finest of Africa. The country being in certain parts cool and mountainous, it produces wool as fine as any part of Spain, and some districts rival in quality the fleeces of Saxony.—*Dictionnaire du Commerce*.

will be readily perceived that Rabat would be the nearest and most natural depot for the wool of Tedla and Temena, were it not for the bar at the mouth of its port. The Arabs would much prefer to bring their wool to Rabat. As it is, they are compelled to pass by Rabat, and striking the coast in the neighborhood of Fedallah and Dar el Beider, proceed along south to the markets of Mazagan and Mogadore. Could the bar at Rabat be removed, it would soon take to itself all the business. It is impossible to bring wool from these provinces to any point further north than this town. To reach Tangier for instance, it must, owing to the rivers and robber tribes, pass through Rabat, and this the authorities of that city will never allow. Even if they would, however, it would be perfectly impossible to transport wool through the province of El Garb, owing to the expense. Roads there are none, except mere mule-tracks, and bridges are unknown, so that at some seasons the communication is entirely intercepted, and at all times is tedious and difficult. This fact is of importance, as it will furnish the ground-work for a suggestion, which, if carried into practice, will have the effect to obviate the difficulty of the bar at Rabat, and completely revolutionize the trade of the coast. Thirty years ago, in Mr. Jackson's time, an extensive trade was carried on in this article. The demand for it was so great, that representations were made to the then emperor that wearing apparel of the Barbary manufacture was rising in value, in consequence of the unlimited exportation of wool, and an order was in consequence issued prohibiting it. This put a stop to the trade. Within a few years it has revived again, and has rapidly increased, until, according to an estimate of our own, it amounts, at the low prices of seven dollars and eight dollars per quintal, to \$600,000 yearly. The duty is quite heavy, amounting to four dollars and two pounds of powder* per quintal. Formerly the duty was much less, but owing to the competition of the merchants who have endeavored to obtain, by higher bids, the exclusive privilege of exportation for particular ports, it has been gradually raised. In 1836, when the duty was three dollars and four pounds of powder per cwt., Mr. Ray, the head of the French house in Rabat, visited the emperor with the richest presents, and making an offer of four dollars and two pounds of powder, succeeded in obtaining a short-lived monopoly for Rabat. He exported under this contract about 10,000 quintals. Since then the duty has been definitely fixed at the same rate. A good deal of wool is taken out of the country on the skin. The duty upon the skin is six dollars per cwt. From fifteen to eighteen skins make a quintal, and each quintal yields about forty-five pounds of fine wool.

Olive oil is the next most valuable article of export, particularly to this country. It is strong, dark, and rancid, and is fit only for manufacturing purposes. This is perhaps not so much the fault of the olive as of the methods by which it is prepared. No care is taken in collecting the olives. They are beaten from the trees with poles, as in Portugal and Spain, suffered to lie on the ground in heaps until half putrified, then put in uncleaned presses, and the oil squeezed through the filthy residuum of former years. Good table oil might be made if care was taken, as in Florence and Lucca,

* The exaction of duty in the form of powder is a kind of compromise with Moorish bigotry. If the Christians are allowed to carry off grain, wool, &c., by which they may be nourished and protected, they are compelled to pay in powder, by which, perhaps some day, Allah willing, they may be destroyed.

to pick the olives without bruising them, and to press only those that were sweet and sound. But such oil would but ill suit the palate of a Maroqueen, accustomed to drink by the pint and the quart the rancid product of his country.

Wax is an important article of export. The price varies from nine dollars to eleven dollars per cwt., but it has to bear an enormous duty of ten dollars a quintal. This makes it a good article for smuggling, or for bribery through the customhouse, an operation that is very extensively performed. It is principally sent to Italy and France ; some of it, however, finds its way to this country, and we noticed recently the arrival of a quantity (probably intended for transshipment) from Mazagan.

Morocco leather, for which this country has been so famous, is now almost given up, as an article of export. It has not been able to bear the competition of the English and French manufacture, owing to the high duty of twenty-five cents ; and it has been found much more profitable to take out the raw goat-skins, some of which find their way to this country. Nothing, however, that is produced in any other country can equal in brilliancy, softness, and strength the Morocco leather ; and if the subject should ever be brought directly under the observation of American enterprise, this leather would no doubt become an exceedingly profitable subject of trade. The finest skins can be purchased for ten dollars per dozen, and the duty upon them there would not be much difficulty in entirely evading.

The only other articles that are of any importance to the trade with the United States, are almonds, dates, madeira nuts, ostrich feathers, ivory, gum, and leeches. Of these last we receive an immense number under the name of Portuguese and Spanish leeches.. The emperor disposes of the exclusive privilege of buying the leeches which are brought to the towns of Larache, Tangier, and Tetuan, for six thousand dollars. Small boats from Malaga, Gibraltar, Cadiz, and Lisbon, receive these leeches at about \$4 50 per thousand, and take them to their respective ports, where they are transhipped for the United States and South America, and become the Portuguese and Spanish, and in some cases, the Swedish leeches of the trade.

The exportation of grain varies with the demand for it in the English market. Cattle are only taken for the supply of Gibraltar. The duty is stated at ten dollars a head. The English have, however, a contract with the emperor, by which they are allowed to take from the port of Tangier 2000 head at four dollars. The authorities of Gibraltar dispose of the contract for the supply of the troops to the lowest bidder, and give in this privilege ; but the emperor nearly neutralizes it by disposing of the exclusive privilege of buying all the cattle for exportation, in the northern half of the kingdom, to one of his own subjects. The Moor buys up all the cattle that are to be exported, and the Gibraltar contractor is compelled to buy of him. This has led to many attempts to bring cattle from Mazagan, a point on the coast beyond the Moorish monopolist's jurisdiction, but the uncertainty of the voyage, with the small-sized, miserable Spanish lateen sailing vessels, prevents its being done successfully. Gibraltar has, therefore, to be supplied principally from Tangier, from which place several thousand head, besides those necessary for the garrison, are taken for the supply of the town.

Besides the articles which we have mentioned, Morocco produces a number of manufactures which, under proper circumstances, might be

profitably exported, with which nothing has hitherto been done. Morocco carpets, the finest and most beautiful read matting, and a cheap kind of woollen cloth, admirably adapted for sailors' shirts and jackets, would undoubtedly pay a good profit. At present they are not even thought of.

From what has been said, it is very evident that the commercial capabilities of this empire are much greater than is generally supposed. That they have not been more thoroughly developed, is greatly owing to the general ignorance and prejudice prevailing upon the subject, as much as to the moral and physical obstacles which we have already considered.

The people in whose hands is the chief business, are incapable of conceiving any thing beyond the usual routine. Lazy, ignorant, jealous, and prejudiced, they look upon any innovation, or any exhibition of energy and enterprise, with suspicion and contempt. And in this they are fully equalled by the Spanish and Portuguese sailors, who principally visit their ports. Of the value of time they have no idea, and it will frequently take a Jewish merchant as long to ship two or three bales of wool, as would answer with us to freight a frigate. Even the very few Europeans who are engaged in trade, and have an opportunity of knowing the resources of the country, soon imbibe the same notions, and satisfied with what is, seem never to have entertained an idea of what might be. Could American enterprise be directed into this promising field, there can be no doubt that it would reap an abundant reward. To an American there would present themselves so many new, active, and energetic ways of doing business, instead of the old dilatory and circuitous system, that he could not fail of success; and we are convinced that the subject needs only to be known and understood, to attract the attention it deserves. The trade, as it is at present conducted, is well worthy the attention of our mercantile capitalists; besides which there are many methods by which it might be materially improved. We shall offer one suggestion here, that from its nature particularly recommends itself to our notions and habits, and that, carried into effect, would be in the highest degree creditable to the character of our countrymen for enterprise and commercial skill. A reference to the map will be necessary to make our suggestion completely understood.

We have before stated that Rabat, were it not for its bar, would have a decided advantage over any other port upon the coast. Its proximity to the great cities of Fes, Mequinez, and Morocco, and to Gibraltar and Cadiz—its relative position to the rich and fertile provinces of Temsna and Tedla—the number and character of its population—the safety of its port when once inside—would, were it not for this unfortunate objection, give it a decided superiority over the open and dangerous roadsteads of Mazagan, Safé, and Mogadore, to the south. The bar, however, is an obstacle that cannot be easily removed, although in our opinion it is very possible to obviate the objections to it. This would be done by a small steamboat to run generally through the straits of Gibraltar, from Gibraltar to Tangier, and occasionally from Tangier to Rabat, as business should require. A steamer drawing five or six feet of water could readily go in and out over the bar. By this means the absurd quarantine regulations of Gibraltar would be evaded, and the direct trade with this country very much facilitated and increased, and in a great measure changed from the dangerous ports on the Atlantic coast to the comparatively safe and commodious harbor of Tangier. The steamboat would freight at Rabat with the products of the province, run round into Tangier, where she would throw out her

susceptible articles, such as wool, leather, and all kinds of manufactured goods, take from Tangier a new bill of health, and with her non-susceptible articles, such as passengers, cattle, fowls, grain, flour, &c., run across to Gibraltar, a distance of three or four hours, and readily obtain pratique. American ships would then go to Tangier, and load with cargoes for which now they have to go south. The business would at once be probably more than enough for one boat; in fact we have data in our possession from which it can be proved that there is business enough, and that of a very lucrative kind, to fully occupy one boat in the straits of Gibraltar alone, from Gibraltar to Tangier. The principle is well understood that to facilitate trade is to increase it. A steamboat upon a new route always makes a great deal of business that did not exist before; but leaving out of sight any anticipations of the kind, however well founded, it can be proved that this route offers a certainty of three or four times the profit arising from any investment of the kind in this country.

The distance between Tangier and Gibraltar, which are within sight of each other, is about thirty miles. The communication is kept up by seven or eight small Spanish lateen craft of from twenty to forty tons each; but it is very irregular, from the fact that it is impossible to cross with a head wind. The wind almost always blows directly through the straits, either east or west. When it blows from the east the boats are detained in Tangier sometimes for two or three weeks until it changes, when away they start in a fleet for Gibraltar, where they have to remain until it again changes to the east. Were it not for this irregularity, together with the danger of being caught out at night in the straits in a boat loaded and lumbered so as hardly to afford standing room, crowded with Jewish and Moorish vagabonds, and filthy beyond even Spanish notions of dirt, there would be a regular run of several thousand passengers a year, who would gladly embrace any thing like an easy opportunity of visiting for a few hours an interesting Mohammedan town. As it is, a large number, consisting of officers of the garrison, inhabitants of the town, and strangers arriving by the English and French steamboats, gratify their curiosity at all risks, and at an expense of from three to five dollars for a passage across. Of this class of passengers a steamboat could safely calculate upon a large number at \$2 per head, in addition to the common Jewish and Moorish forward passengers. A steamer would also have, as a regular business, several thousand cattle which now pay \$1 25 per head. The cattle dealers and contractors of Gibraltar would gladly pay even a higher price for the certainty and celerity of a steamboat. In addition to this, the whole of the produce of the country, such as vegetables, fowls, &c.; and in return, a large amount of goods for the interior of the country, would give one boat full occupation.

A boat for such a purpose ought to be of the strongest and best construction, so as to lessen the liability to get out of repair, but without any expense in fitting up, or any thing for mere beauty. A good strong hull, of two or three hundred tons, without cabins or berths, would be fully sufficient. She should have powerful engines, as it will not unfrequently happen that she will have opportunities, in her passage from Gibraltar, of towing vessels through the straits. The strong current that sets through the straits from the Atlantic, renders it perfectly impossible for vessels to beat out against a head wind; in which case they are compelled to lie in Gibraltar until the wind changes, which is sometimes exceedingly incon-

venient and expensive, particularly for the fruit vessels from Malaga. The boat should also be rigged for sailing. Perhaps the best rig would be brigantine, or square sails on the foremast, and fore and aft sails on the main. As the wind blows almost always directly parallel with her course, either east or west, she would not be compelled to use her steam more than half the time. In some particulars the expenses of such a boat would be less than in this country. Her coals she would get at Gibraltar for \$8 per ton, provisions would be cheaper, and a crew of Spanish and Genoese sailors can be had at \$5 or \$6 per month.

The exclusive privilege for any part of the coast might be very easily obtained from the emperor, provided the person who should undertake it had the necessary diplomatic tact and knowledge of the Moorish character and customs. A few thousand dollars judiciously expended in presents to his ministers, would be fully sufficient. But it would be necessary that the negotiation should be conducted with profound secrecy. A steamer would disturb so many petty interests, and so completely revolutionize the present system of trade, that a strong influence would be at once excited against the project if it was known. The Moorish court is excessively suspicious and jealous, and any representations, however absurd, would find a ready entertainment in their ignorance and prejudice. It is also probable that cupidity, another strong feature in their character, would be successfully appealed to. Bribery is the common custom of the court and country.* Any inferior, or a stranger, is expected to approach an official, if he has a favor to ask, or even on mere visits of ceremony, with a present, and nothing is too mean to be offered. The smallest favors are readily received, although in receiving the most valuable presents there is not a man in the empire, from the prime minister down, who will hesitate to beg for more. The value of the presents are expected to correspond to the dignity of the giver as well as the receiver, and to the cause of the interview. About a fair price for a complimentary audience with a bashaw of a province, is one silk handkerchief, a loaf of sugar, a little tea, and a pound of candles. If there was any business to transact, it would perhaps be advisable to add a piece of nankeen and a cotton turban. With such customs it would be very easy for those who might imagine that their

* The system of making regular and stated presents, by the diplomatic agents of Christian countries, to the principal officers of the town in which they reside, is still kept up, although the amount and frequency of them has in late years been somewhat diminished. The presents are made about five times a year, upon the occurrence of as many Mohammedan festivals or fasts. Five or six of the principal officers of the town only come in for these regular perquisites of office, but their subordinates, down to the guards and gate-keepers, generally contrive to get their share. The American and Neapolitan governments give presents of the least value. Sweden and Denmark are the only two nations that continue to pay tribute. One pays to the emperor \$20,000, the other \$25,000 per annum. The necessity of paying this tribute has long since passed away, and numerous opportunities of rupturing the treaties have occurred, (as for instance in the case of Count Graberg de Hemso,) but still the tribute continues to be paid. The reason in the case of Sweden is, that the tribute originally served as an excuse for a peculiar tax upon commerce, by which it was raised. If the tribute is given up, the tax must be given up; but as it now raises a greater amount than is necessary for its original purpose, the government prefer to throw away \$20,000 upon the emperor of Morocco, in order to pocket the balance. Probably something like the same reason prevails in Denmark.

interest would be affected by the introduction of steam, to prejudice the whole court against the plan and prevent a contract from being obtained; and without such a contract, under the imperial seal, the undertaking would not be safe. With a mere verbal permission there would be a constant liability of interference, and although there could not be much actual loss, a whim of the emperor might cut short the brilliant prospects of profits. Ten years ago, even a written agreement would not have been a very strong guarantee; but times have changed in Morocco, and some steps, short and few it is true, are to be perceived of the progress of improvement. It has been cited as an evidence of the march of mind in New Zealand, that many of the natives have left off eating their old fathers and mothers, and now dine only upon the bodies of their slaves and enemies taken in battle. We don't know that such a decided step can be shown to have been taken in Morocco, but in many things there has been a change. The emperor no longer amuses himself with mounting his horse, and at the same moment drawing his sword and striking off at one blow the head of the courtier holding the stirrup, a common pastime with some of his ancestors a few years since. He no longer seizes upon the persons and the property of Christians at his pleasure, and he no longer dares to treat a member of the consular corps with indignity, much less to imprison or unceremoniously drive them out of the country. His word to Christians he finds the necessity of adhering to, and a written contract for the purpose we have mentioned would be as valid and of as much force as if made with any potentate of Europe.

In the preceding remarks we have had reference only to that part of Maghrib which may be called Morocco proper, but we cannot quit the subject without indulging in a glance at the promising, but uncultivated field for commercial enterprise which lies just beyond the imperial jurisdiction. The sovereignty of the emperor of Morocco over the rich and populous districts of Suse is, as we have before stated, merely nominal. He has no real authority, and in the southern parts of the province the people have for years arrogated and enjoyed perfect independence. The jurisdiction of the emperor may be strictly said to terminate at Agadeir or Santa Cruz, a town about three days' journey below Mogadore. The bay of this town is considered the very best road for vessels in the empire, being well sheltered from all winds. It was formerly the centre of a very extensive commerce across the desert with the interior of Africa, and the residence of a number of Christian merchants, but from the natural strength of its position it excited the jealousy of the Moorish emperor, who ordered the place to be evacuated, and the merchants to transfer their establishments to Mogadore. Since then the trade has been completely broken up, and no vessels have for years visited the place. Beyond this port there is a long extent of coast, inhabited by several rich and independent tribes. The principal of these are the people of Wednoon, a large town about fifteen miles inland, upon the river Akassa, and about four days' journey from Santa Cruz. The town is, says Jackson, a kind of intermediate depot for merchandise on its way to Soudan, and for the produce of Soudan going to Mogadore. Gums and wax are produced here in abundance, and the people living in independence, indulge in the luxuries of dress, and use many European commodities. A great quantity of gold dust is bought and sold at Wednoon. They trade sometimes to Mogadore, but prefer selling their merchandise on the spot, not wishing to trust their persons

and property within the territory of the emperor of Morocco. With Timbuctoo, however, they carry on a constant and advantageous trade, and many of the Arabs are immensely rich. Some time since we had an opportunity of seeing the journal of the lamented Davidson,* in which he confirms Jackson's account, and expresses his decided opinion of the possibility of a profitable trade being opened with the people of Wednoon. The sheik frequently expressed his wish that the English would send him a consul, and open a direct trade with him; thus enabling him to pocket some of the duties which now go to the emperor of Morocco.

Along this district of Suse and Wednoon, from Santa Cruz to Cape Bogador, is an extent of coast of about two hundred miles. It is not visited by the shipping of any nation, and we know but little respecting it, excepting that it has two tolerably good roadsteads. It is very possible, and in fact probable, that there are other good anchoring grounds, that we know nothing about. "This tract of coast," says Jackson, "holds out the greatest encouragement to commercial enterprise, and secure establishments might be effected upon it which would amply remunerate the enterprising speculator."

Some of the more enlightened merchants of Mogadore, towards the close of the last century, had a great opinion of an establishment somewhere between the latitudes 27° and 30° north, but a famine, and afterward a most destructive plague, prevented the execution of the plan. This plan, which, owing to the decline of the morocco trade, and the want of capital, enterprise, and intelligence among those engaged in it, has never been carried into effect, is at the present day full as feasible and as promising as when it was first conceived.

We have not space to enter into an explanation of the details of the various methods by which this trade might be opened and carried on. Suffice it to say, that we think a permanent establishment upon the coast is not by any means essential, and that the business can be conducted in a way that would require but little capital, be attended with but little risk, and afford the certainty of enormous profit. The subject is one that certainly deserves investigation, and which we would recommend to the attention of our commercial capitalists.

* Davidson was a young and enterprising Englishman, who, under patronage of the Duke of Sussex, and the Geographical Society, undertook, five or six years since, to visit Timbuctoo, by passing through Morocco. The influence of the English government got him to Wednoon, the sheik of which place engaged to see him safely across the desert. A few days after leaving Wednoon, a party of Arabs rode up to the caravans with which he was travelling, exclaiming, Where is the Christian? Where is the Christian? The caravan had halted, and Davidson was sitting a little apart. They immediately rushed towards him and shot him dead; thus adding another to the long list of martyrs in the cause of African discovery. It is supposed that his death was caused by the commercial jealousy of the Moorish merchants of Fes who trade with Timbuctoo.

ART. II.—COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN looking abroad upon the crowded docks of our seaport towns, we perceive them heaped with bales, boxes, and casks, as well as commercial implements and merchandise of all kinds,—general depots of import and shipment, bordered by vessels of various sizes, with their delicate pencilings of spars and cordage, which have either folded their wings after their ocean flights, or are loading their cargoes for foreign ports,—we are easily satisfied that these points are the grand gateways of the commerce of the country. The flags of the principal nations of Europe wave above our harbors. Advancing into our streets, we view the sidewalks heaped with foreign goods, and the shelves of our stores loaded with the same sort of commodities; and entering still further, into the houses of our citizens, we behold them furnished, and the occupants themselves, for the most part, clothed with fabrics which are introduced from abroad. The products of commerce most clearly bear the largest proportion to the whole amount of goods employed throughout the republic, either in use or in exchange; and their traffic, constituting as it does the principal object of the enterprise of our merchants, and a subject which employs the industry of a very large mass of our citizens, deserves notice in the pages of this magazine.

It has ever been found that just in proportion as nations advance in wealth and refinement, they demand the products of commerce. Engaged as colonists in laying the foundations of an empire, in tilling the soil, and removing the obstacles of nature, they are uniformly found simple in their habits, and contented with the crude productions of the earth, and the hard appliances always found in a new country. But as soon as wealth is acquired, and the consequent leisure, the fine arts are introduced, and literature adorns and enriches the mind, they are seldom contented with the common conveniences of life, but seek out those objects which are the best calculated to afford the means of luxury and enjoyment. These advantages, if they may be so considered, are to be found, in great measure, in the productions of commerce; and hence it has happened that those productions of commerce have kept uniform pace with the advance of the nation, in the respect which we have mentioned. We propose, in this article, to trace out, in so far as we are able, the commercial relations of our own country with the prominent nations abroad; inasmuch as we shall thus be enabled the more thoroughly to understand the facts that we see about us in the commercial world, and to which we have alluded.

Notwithstanding the legislative restrictions which may from time to time have been established, for the purpose of encouraging the introduction, or preventing the exportation of commercial staples, every country must, from the nature of its soil, climate, population, or government, be peculiarly favorable for the production of certain articles, the product either of agriculture or manufactures, and which constitute the proper subjects of exportation. To apply this remark to our own country: it will be clear to every one who will examine the facts, that the soil of our southern states is decidedly favorable to the production of cotton, tobacco, sugar, and rice, the most of which articles are proper subjects of exportation; and the

grain-growing states of the west are equally favorable to the production of wheat. Hence, it falls within the necessary order of things, that we should export those products of agriculture. It is also true that in England, and parts of the continent, where labor is cheap, and machinery, as well as the useful arts, have arrived to a high degree of perfection, the various articles of manufacture can be produced at a much cheaper rate than with us ; and accordingly, the same moral necessity exists for us to import a considerable portion of such products. The particular nature of these foreign imports and exports, to and from various parts of the country, will appear as we proceed.

We will first enter into a brief view of our commercial relations with Great Britain ; a nation with which our foreign mercantile connections are the most intimate and extensive. It is probably well known, that our intercourse with this opulent and powerful empire, although not of very long standing—we, in fact, having been merely one of its remote provinces previous to the year 1776—has been varied according to the changes of national policy which have marked the two governments. At the close of the war of the revolution, by the treaty of peace of 1783, our own country became, in relation to that empire, a foreign state, and the relations of commerce, accordingly, were thenceforward established upon an independent basis. Previous to the year 1791, it would seem that the policy of that country towards our own was reciprocal ; the king and council, who, by an act of parliament of April, 1783, were invested with the power of regulating the trade between the two countries, permitting all unmanufactured goods, with few exceptions, and pig and bar iron, as also pitch, tar, and turpentine, pot and pearl ashes, indigo, as well as masts, yards, and bowsprits, which were the production of our own territory, to be subject to the same duties as were demanded of the same sort of British products imported from any British island or plantation in America. It was also established, that fish oil, blubber, whale fins, and spermaceti, as well as other articles of American production, which had not been enumerated, should be admitted into Great Britain upon the same terms that were required for the same sort of goods in foreign countries ; and that where different duties were imposed in foreign countries, then the lowest duties which were required by those countries were also required by Great Britain upon American products. Our intercourse with the British West Indies, it appears, was regulated by the same act. Upon this footing the commercial intercourse between the two nations stood until the 19th of November, 1794, when more stability was secured for our mercantile connections with that country, a treaty of commerce having finally been concluded. Through that treaty our own republic was insured the liberty of commerce with the British dominions in Europe ; and our relations with them were placed upon the same platform with that of other nations, by the provision which enacted that no higher duties should be paid by us than were paid by other nations, the right being retained on the part of Great Britain to impose a tonnage duty upon all American vessels entering their ports, equal to that which was paid by British vessels entering American ports, as well as all such duties as were required to countervail the difference of duties that was payable upon goods that entered the United States, either by British or American vessels. In 1804, however, the terms of this treaty, so far as they related to commerce, expired.

The design that had been long entertained on the part of Great Britain,

and which was pressed upon the American commissioners as early as 1806, to equalize the tonnage and other duties between the United States and the British dominions in Europe, was not finally effected until the commercial convention held between our own government and Great Britain, on the 3d day of July, 1815; and this measure was of great importance to us, inasmuch as our imports of hardware, cotton, and woollen cloths, far exceeds that which we derive from any other foreign nation. The trade with the British East Indies, that was commenced soon after the peace of 1783, seems to have been regulated by the same general principles; the British government having secured to us all the advantages consistent with her commercial policy, always profound and far-seeing. Cotton goods, of low price, appear to have been the principal articles of export from that country previous to 1816; but the tariff of that year was designed, and succeeded finally in shutting out those goods from our own ports, in order to secure the prosperity of such manufactures in the United States. Since that period, the principal articles that have been furnished to us from that country are indigo and silks; in return for which we have exported flour, whale oil, candles of spermaceti and tallow, lumber of various kinds, and also manufactured tobacco; the foreign exports from thence consisting principally of gold and silver coin, and more recently, bills have been substituted.

It is a question frequently asked, what has been the cause of the decrease of our commerce with the British West India Islands?—and the answer is obvious in the fact, that by a very sagacious policy the British have secured for their shipping about three quarters of our own exports to those islands; and this remark applies equally well to our intercourse with the British North American provinces. By the levy of large duties upon all articles carried directly from the United States to the West Indies in American bottoms, and the repeal of duties upon all articles formerly transported to the West Indies that are carried from the United States to the British provinces, the trade which formerly passed direct from the United States to the British West India Islands, is now, in great measure, forced through the North American British colonies. The circuitous trade thus permitted, allows the British vessels to pass directly from any part of her majesty's dominions to any part of the United States, and there to take in a cargo either direct for the West Indies, or by the way of the provinces. It has accordingly happened, that not only the American trade has been cut off from the West Indies by such duties, as in effect to amount to a prohibition, but the direct consequence has also been greatly to increase the amount of British shipping employed in the American trade. The actual increase in this respect within a period of only three years, may be judged from the fact that while, in 1830, the whole amount of British tonnage employed in the American trade was but one hundred thousand two hundred and ninety-eight, it had advanced, in 1833, to the enormous sum of four hundred and two thousand seven hundred and thirty tons. A more accurate idea of the effect of this law may be shown by an examination of the statistics illustrating those facts. Of the articles of flour and pork alone, we need but notice these circumstances, to be convinced of the accuracy of what we have stated. In 1830, the amount of flour exported from the single port of New York, in American vessels, to the British colonies, was 20,410 barrels, and in 1833, this amount had dwindled to 6,536; while the amount of pork exported in our vessels to those colonies,

which, in 1830, was only 907 barrels, had increased, in 1833, to the sum of 1,550. In exact proportion to the diminution of our own trade with those provinces has been the increase of that of the British; for in 1830, flour to the amount of only 42,196 barrels was exported in British bottoms, and in 1833, it had increased to 80,307 barrels. So also in the article of pork, in 1830, but 335 barrels were exported in British ships, which had increased, in 1833, to 10,120 barrels, all exported in British ships. The same facts are shown in the diminution of the American tonnage to the British provinces, and the increase of that of the British, during the same period, in the ports of New York and Boston, the principal marts of trade with those provinces in the United States. The result has been, that those merchants who have been formerly engaged in the West India trade have either been shut out from those islands, or have been obliged to employ British ships, which is now done to a considerable extent in the port of Boston.

Our own merchants are not unobservant of the injurious consequences of this policy, and we perceive that they have already directed the attention of congress to the subject. In a report of a committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, submitted to that body on the 2d of March, 1841, by Hon. John Ruggles, upon our present commercial arrangements with Great Britain, they say :

"The arrangement allows the imposition, without limitation, of duties on our produce imported into the British colonies from the United States, and that they may vary in different colonies; that, when imported into any colony, such goods may be naturalized, or considered as productions of that colony, and transported to any other free of duty; that goods may be transported from one colony or province to another, only by British vessels; that American vessels may bring to the colonies or provinces nothing but the products of the United States.

"To avail herself of the advantages which such an arrangement offered, England immediately imposed heavy, and, in some instances, prohibitory duties on our products when imported into the West Indies from the United States, and admitted the same articles free of duty when imported circuitously through the provinces.

"Such are the benefits to British navigation from the arrangement, that, as your committee are informed, Americans have become owners of British vessels to a very considerable extent, in order to avail themselves of them.

"Before adducing the statistical facts which your committee think abundantly support their assertion, they will state some of the modes in which the arrangement is now made subservient to the interests of British ship-owners.

"Articles of our produce, to a very large amount, are daily ordered to be shipped to the British provinces; they are sent in British vessels, *nominally* landed and naturalized, and sent directly to the West Indian colonies; the vicinity of a number of ports in the provinces where this can be effected, (within two days' sail from Boston,) renders this almost equivalent to a direct voyage from our ports to the West Indies; and it is one in which American vessels cannot participate. As may readily be supposed, every facility is given in such ports of naturalization.

"There is another mode, in which the arrangement favors British shipping, deserving of particular attention. British vessels proceed to our southern ports: if freights to Europe be obtained, they take them; if not, they take a cargo of yellow pine lumber, return to the provinces, naturalize the cargo, and carry it to England. The duty on this article thus carried, is so much less than on its direct importation from the United States, as entirely to preclude its being carried in American vessels. This is done to a considerable extent; and your committee suggest, that if such a discrimination of duty, on an article notoriously not produced in the British provinces, be consistent with the existing arrangement, they can see no reason why a similar duty may not be applied to our other staples, so as to throw the whole carrying-trade between the United States and Great Britain into the hands of our commercial competitors.

"Again, with regard to flour: this article is admitted into the provinces, from the United States, free of duty. The amount thus imported by sea is immense, but insigni-

ficant in comparison with that carried into the provinces over the frontier. The duty, in England, on flour from the provinces, is five shillings per quarter for the highest rate, and may be as low as sixpence per quarter. On the same article, imported directly from the United States, the duty ranges from a shilling per quarter to twenty-five shillings and eightpence; the rate of duty depends on the price in England, and is usually about twenty shillings per quarter, or four times greater than the duty on flour from the provinces. Here is a vast field for the employment of British vessels, to the exclusion of our own, in the transportation of our own products.

"There is another mode in which the arrangement favors British shipping, in the creation of what has been called the triangular voyage. Formerly, British vessels engaged in the colonial trade went to the colonies in ballast, or but partially laden; they often remained there a long time for the preparation of their cargoes, with which they returned to England. Now, they take full freights to the United States; thence, full or partial freights to the West Indies; and thence, full freights to England. Or they proceed with freights from England to the West Indies; whence, in a few days, they arrive at our southern ports, where they obtain full freights for Europe. British vessels thus employed have a decided advantage over us, even in the direct freights to and from our own ports.

"The gradual extinction of our direct trade with the British West Indies seems an inevitable result of the arrangement; the discrimination of duties on articles imported there directly from the United States, and on the same articles when imported circuitously through the provinces, will eventually turn the whole course of trade in that direction. The duty on flour from the United States is five shillings; and on beef and pork, more than twenty-five shillings per barrel; on lumber, it is twenty-eight shillings; and on shingles, more than three dollars per thousand. All these articles from the provinces are admitted free of this duty; of course, most of them are imported circuitously. And not only so; but the first freight to the provinces, from the United States, is in British vessels, in consequence of the facilities enjoyed by them at the ports of naturalization for transportation to the West Indies. In 1824, 1825, and 1826, the American tonnage which entered our ports, direct from the British West Indies, was 292,700 tons; in 1837, 1838, and 1839, it had diminished to 125,800 tons.

"If such be the state of our direct trade, we have not much to console us in the comparative increase of British tonnage and our own, in the whole of the colonial and provincial trade. The British tonnage cleared from our ports for the colonies and provinces in 1824, 1825, and 1826, was 51,800 tons; the American tonnage was 477,100 tons. In 1837, 1838, and 1839, the clearance of British tonnage, as above, was 1,235,500 tons, and of American but 1,126,000 tons; the increase of British tonnage in our own ports, during this whole period, being about ten times greater than that of our own.

"In addition to our own vicious legislation, our competitors have other advantages over us. The expense of building vessels in the provinces is less, by about one third, than that of building ours; and they are likewise manned and equipped more cheaply. It is true, that, from their manifest inferiority, they do not command the same rates of freight as our own; but their influence is powerful for evil against us.

"As the source when the navy—our right arm in foreign contest—must draw its whole strength, it has ever been our avowed policy to encourage our navigation; its importance may well entitle it not merely to a fair field, but to especial favor. Even a fair field is now denied to us. Many and great advantages are, by this arrangement, given to our most active competitors; and the annexed table, prepared from official returns, shows to what a fearful extent they have availed themselves of them.

Table of American and British tonnage cleared from the several ports of the United States, from foreign ports, from 1824 to 1839, inclusive.

Year.	American tonnage.	British tonnage.
1824,	919,300	69,300
1825,	960,000	61,900
1826,	953,000	65,700
1827,	980,500	94,800
1828,	897,400	105,600
1829,	944,800	87,800
1830,	971,800	89,800
1831,	972,500	211,300
1832,	974,900	284,900
1833,	1,142,200	377,200

1824,	1,134,000	458,100
1825,	1,400,500	523,400
1826,	1,315,500	538,900
1827,	1,266,600	536,400
1828,	1,408,800	486,900
1829,	1,447,900	491,500

"The sudden and great increase of British tonnage subsequently to 1820, when the arrangement went into operation, cannot fail to be remarked. In six years, from 1824 to 1830, its increase was less than twenty per cent; in the ensuing six years, from 1830 to 1836, it was six hundred per cent. The whole increase of American tonnage engaged in foreign trade from 1824 to 1829, has been but fifty-two per cent; whilst that of British tonnage, in our own ports, has been more than four hundred and forty-seven per cent in the same period.

"Your committee deemed an estimate of the amount of the freights of American vessels in the foreign trade, now so jeopardized, not irrelevant to the purpose for which they were appointed; they accordingly submit such a one, from which it appears that the amount of these freights, earned by 667,200 tons of shipping thus engaged, is more than thirty-eight millions of dollars annually; and, moreover, that there are 1,428,000 tons of American shipping engaged in the coastwise trade, whose earnings must very much exceed that amount." *

We quote also, from the same report, their estimate of amount of freight earned by American vessels.

"The cotton freights are assumed as the basis of calculation. From New Orleans, Mobile, and their vicinity, 1,500 pounds per registered ton is a low average of the quantity which freighting vessels will carry. From South Carolina and Georgia, the quantity is considerably less; but the amount exported thence is much smaller. The average of the whole foreign cotton freights from southern ports may be safely stated at 1,400 pounds per registered ton. The average rate of freight may be stated at three farthings, or one and a half cent, per pound. The American tonnage which cleared for foreign countries in 1829, was 1,478,000 tons. On the above basis, their outward freights would have been, with primage, a fraction over twenty-two dollars per registered ton, or \$33,255,000

The freights of tobacco, rice, and other exports from the south, are graduated by that of cotton. Southern exports produce a large part of our freights; and in so far as they are in question, the above estimate is but little liable to error. But this rate is too high for our foreign freights from the northern and middle states. It may be remarked, however, that, as it is calculated on the registered tonnage, and as our vessels usually carry fifty per cent more than this, it is, in fact, less than fifteen dollars per ton of goods actually carried. But this, also, is too high an estimate for the average of these freights, including, as they do, those to the provinces and to the West Indies. The large deduction of *one third of the whole above estimated amount of outward freight from the United States* would probably reduce the estimate for the whole of the foreign freights from the northern and middle states to less than eight dollars per ton, and would seem to preclude the possibility of an over-estimate. Deduct, then, one third, 11,685,000

\$22,170,000

Add homeward freights, estimated at six dollars per ton of carrying capacity, 13,302,000

35,472 000

In this are included the freights from Europe, South America, and the East Indies, ranging from ten dollars to twenty-five dollars per ton, and forming a large part of the whole.

Add the freights earned by American vessels not included in the above estimate; such as those from Cuba, the West Indies, South America,

* See, in Senate Document, March 2, 1841, "A Report of a Committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, in Relation to the Present Commercial Arrangement with Great Britain."

and the East Indies, to Europe, and from Europe to those places; from port to port in Europe, and from port to port in the East Indies and elsewhere. The rates for these are generally double of that we have assumed, and the aggregate amount is very great. A small part of this may be considered as included in the above estimate for the whole outward clearance, as vessels to Cuba and the East Indies do not usually carry full cargoes; but, allowing for this, the amount to be added from this source cannot be over-estimated at

2,600,000

Making the amount of freight earned by American vessels in the foreign trade only, per annum

\$38,072,000

"The tonnage producing this vast amount is denominated 'registered tonnage;' in 1839, it amounted to 834,000 tons. Of this whole amount, however, a large part is engaged in the coasting trade; a very large number of registered vessels are permanently thus engaged in the regular lines to and from the southern ports. Perhaps nearly as many more are transiently employed in freighting in the same manner. It would not, probably, be too high an estimate to state the average amount of registered tonnage thus engaged at one fifth of the whole amount, or 166,800 tons, leaving the amount of tonnage engaged in the foreign trade at 667,200 tons. The enrolled and licensed tonnage is 1,262,000 tons; adding to this the 166,800 tons above mentioned, we have 1,428,800 tons engaged in the coasting trade. We have estimated the annual earnings of 667,200 tons engaged in the foreign trade at more than thirty-eight millions of dollars. It cannot be doubted that the earnings of more than double of that amount of tonnage engaged in the coasting trade must much exceed that sum."

The influence of the circuitous trade thus established by Great Britain for her own ships, has been to throw a great number of British vessels into the American trade; and this effect has been obvious, not only in diminishing the number of American vessels employed in our trade between Great Britain and Ireland, but in increasing, in the same proportion, that of the British. This circuitous trade, thus yielding to the British so great a portion of the carrying-trade of the country, has thrown into their hands the transportation of a considerable part of the bulky products of the United States, especially that of cotton; and, indeed, the increase of foreign tonnage in the commercial operations of the United States, and the proportionate diminution of American tonnage in our intercourse with the same ports, is obvious from the fact, that, in 1833, the value of the amount of domestic produce exported from the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Louisiana, was \$35,262,000, of which \$11,990,000 went in foreign vessels—the exports in foreign vessels constituting a little more than a third of the total amount of exports from those states. The principal part of our trade with the British West India Islands, and which has so much diminished from the circumstances that we have described, has consisted mainly of bulky articles, such as lumber, flour, bread, beef, pork, bacon, lard, Indian corn, rye, Indian meal, and live-stock, for which have been returned rum and molasses. We have before remarked, that the largest commercial intercourse is now enjoyed by our own country with Great Britain; and this will be obvious by an examination of the amount of brass and copper manufacture, cotton goods, glass, and earthen-ware, haberdashery, hats, iron and steel, lead, salt, and silk manufactures, linens, tin, pewter, woollens, and other articles, which are imported from that country; the trade to England alone, in 1840, amounting, in the value of imports, to \$33,114,133, and the exports to that of \$57,048,660, during the same year.

The commercial intercourse of our own country with France, although of less importance than that of Great Britain, is beginning to be deemed a

subject requiring more attention than it has yet commanded. The great staple, cotton, is the principal export to that country, it constituting about three quarters of our domestic exports to the French empire, although tobacco, hops, fish, whale oil, whalebone, are included within those of domestic product, and sugar, coffee, teas, cocoa, pepper, and spices of other sorts, being the exports to that country of foreign products; while we receive in return wines, of various sorts, brandy, silks, olive oil, jewelry of a rich kind, and, very recently, cotton goods; our imports from that country amounting, in 1840, to \$17,572,876, and our exports to \$21,841,554. To these may be added, sewing-silk, hosiery, twist, yarn, nankeens, and gloves. The American trade with the French West India Islands is now of comparatively little importance; the intercourse having been first commenced by an *arret* of the French government, bearing date the 30th of August, 1784, by which American vessels, of at least sixty tons burden, were admitted into certain of their ports with timber, dye-woods, live-stock, salt beef, salt fish, rice, liquors, hides, peltry, pitch, tar, and rozin; and in return we were permitted to transport from thence, rum, molasses, and goods which were brought from France, upon the payment of the required duties; and, under certain colonial regulations, the French islands were early supplied by the United States with most of their foreign goods; so that, in 1786, of the exports to that country, which were valued at 20,878,000 livres, 13,263,000 were introduced from the United States, which returned 7,263,000 of their exports—our own tonnage which was employed being 105,095. In the year 1793, France opened a free trade to her colonial ports with the whole world, and offered to secure this trade to us by compact; but this was refused on the part of our government. Although, before the year 1807, the amount of domestic and foreign produce transported by us to those islands was considerable, yet, at that time, most of these islands were in possession of the English, excepting that of St. Domingo, which was held by the negroes, and continued thus until 1814, the date of the restoration of peace in Europe, when France returned to her old system of commercial policy. The imports from the French West Indies during the last year, amounted in value to \$335,251, and the exports to \$514,251. With the island of Hayti, under the government of the blacks, our commerce has been even greater than with the West India islands in the possession of France; the principal articles exported to that island being flour, rice, beef, pork, butter and lard, fish, cheese, and hams; in return for which we have received cocoa, coffee, and other articles of less importance; our total imports during the last year having been \$1,252,824 in value, and that of our exports, during the same year, \$1,027,214.

Our commerce with Spain, Portugal, and its dependencies, has long been considerable; tobacco, rice, whale oil, fish, and flour, the principal portion of our domestic produce, was there exported; for which the returns have been wines, brandies, and fruits. While the wars which so long devastated Europe were in progress, our export of foreign produce consisted of cocoa, coffee, sugar, pepper, and various kinds of spices; while from 1809 to 1813, our domestic exports of grains and various kinds of provisions, were much augmented, in order to the supply of the allied armies of Napoleon, which were then invading that country. During the prevalence of the long wars to which we have alluded, our countrymen supplied the Spanish islands with European manufactures, and engrossed the carrying-trade of their valuable products. With the island of Cuba,

especially, our commerce has been considerable, as we export not only large quantities of flour annually to that island, but also beef, pork, dried fish, and lard. Besides these agricultural products, a large amount of American manufactures, such as household furniture, coaches and carriages of different sorts, saddlery, hats, combs, buttons, gunpowder, glass, leather, boots and shoes, soap, and tallow candles, together with spermaceti, and several minor articles. In return for these we receive from that island large quantities of sugar and coffee. Of sugar, nearly one half of that which is imported into this country from all parts of the world has been received from that island, and from the same source we have received more than one third of our coffee. With other parts of the Spanish West Indies, the Spanish South American colonies and Mexico, the Central Republic, Columbia, Buenos Ayres, or the Argentine Republic, Chili, and Peru, our commerce is of no inconsiderable importance; Mexico and South America, together with the East Indies, China, the Central Republic, Columbia, Brazil, Buenos Ayres, and Chili, supplying the principal markets for our domestic manufactures of cotton. With Portugal and the island of Madeira, the United States have exported some of our staple agricultural products, such as wheat, corn, flour, and rice, besides dried fish, whale oil, staves, and heading; for which we have received in return salt, fruit, and wines. Our intercourse with the latter territory, like that with Spain, appears to have been very much modified by the invasion of Portugal by the armies of France, and large quantities of American flour were then exported to that country. Our trade was also increased with the Brazils, upon the removal of the Portuguese government to that territory. The exports to the Brazils, and other Portuguese American colonies, of our domestic produce, consisted mainly of flour, and also fish, beef, pork, hams, and butter, candles of spermaceti and tallow, whale oil, household furniture, hats, shoes, and boots, soap, cotton goods, and gunpowder; and also foreign articles, such as cotton and hempen goods, sail duck, cordage, teas, and spices; our ships bringing back copper and raw hides, sugar, coffee, as well as gold and silver coin.

With Russia, whose cold-blooded despotism frowns down upon the world as if the heart of the empire was composed of one of its icy hills, the commerce of the United States has been considerable. Our exports to this empire have, however, been small, comprised mainly of a quantity of cotton, tobacco, rice, and oak-bark, of our domestic produce, and coffee, sugar, spices, and dye-woods, being the articles of foreign produce mainly exported. The imports from that country are, however, very great, their value, in 1840, being \$2,572,427, and are comprised principally of iron, hemp, cordage, duck, various species of cloth wrought from hemp and flax, such as shirtings, tickings, both broad and narrow, drillings, and diapers. With Sweden our trade has been inconsiderable; iron formerly constituting the principal import to this country, for which were returned tobacco, rice, whale oil, and other articles of domestic as well as foreign produce. The value of our imports from Sweden, including Norway, in 1840, was \$1,217,913, and that of our exports, \$550,226. Our commerce with the Swedish West Indies is of much less importance, it having fallen off to a considerable extent since 1821. In 1840, the value of imports from the Swedish West Indies was \$57,545, and that of the exports, \$102,320. Denmark, also, ranks low in the amount of its commercial intercourse with the United States; the value of the imports from this territory, in

1840, being only \$7,501 in amount, and the exports of domestic produce only \$76,183. To the Danish West Indies our trade has been somewhat more extensive ; the value of the imports, in 1840, having been \$969,177, and that of the exports of domestic produce, \$918,931.

Our intercourse with Hamburg, Bremen, and the northern part of Germany, is of great importance, and it is likely to be much increased by the establishment of steam navigation between Bremen and Boston, which will go into operation during the next spring. The city of Hamburg, from its central position, surrounded by canals, which, together with valuable channels of river navigation, such as the Elbe and Weser, transport the manufactures of Germany to this emporium, has long been the principal depot of German commerce, and that of the north of Europe, and its port affords free navigation to the United States, and flags from those nations may be seen at any time floating above our docks. To those places we have usually exported, of our domestic produce, tobacco and rice, cotton, spirits, and whale oil, pot and pearl ashes, skins, furs, and hops ; and coffee, sugar, teas, cocoa, pepper, and other spices, the product of foreign countries, has also been considerable ; the imports from those countries, in 1840, amounting to \$1,074,754 in value, and the exports to \$3,856,310. With Holland and its dependencies our trade is very valuable ; the articles of our domestic produce exported being principally tobacco, rice, cotton, whale oil, pot and pearl ashes—those of cotton, tobacco, and rice being of the greatest value ; in return for which we have received woollen, linen, and other goods, spirits made from grain, and also manufactures of iron, steel, and lead, paints, cheese, glass, anchors, as well as sheet, slit, and hoop iron. It is seen, by the above statement, that the exports have somewhat exceeded the imports.

With the Dutch East Indies our commerce has been less extensive, we having engrossed the main portion of the carrying trade connected with her rich East India possessions during the wars in which Holland participated. The imports from that country formerly consisted principally of coffee and pepper, a very large amount of which was formerly brought to our own country, but in 1840 the total value of our imports was but \$817,897, and that of the exports, during the same year, \$335,303. To Italy our exports have consisted mainly of sugar, dried fish, coffee, pepper, and cocoa, for which we have had returned silks, wines, fruits, brandies, lead, cheese, olive oil, paper and rags, hats and bonnets. The value of imports from this country in 1840, was \$1,157,200, and that of our exports \$1,473,185.

Our trade with China being second only to that of Great Britain and France, requires a more minute account than we have given to our intercourse with other parts of the world, excepting those countries. It was commenced from the port of New York, by a vessel which sailed on the 22d of February, 1784, and the success of that first voyage attracted no little attention throughout the country, and gave rise to a remarkable expedition. It was set on foot by Captain Stewart Dennis, a citizen of Albany, who, with a sloop of only eighty-four tons, and a crew consisting of seven men and two boys, sailed for Canton on the 19th of December, 1785, and having crossed the ocean, arrived at his destined point, where he “surprised the natives” by informing them that he had crossed the great sea with such a craft. The path was thus laid open to the Celestial Empire, whose self-satisfied glory appears now to be waning, and four

years afterwards, fifteen American flags were seen waving in the port of Canton. Teas, silk, nankeens, and china-ware, sugar, cassia, and other articles of less importance, constitute the principal part of our imports from that country, which, in 1840, amounted in value to \$6,640,829, while our exports during the same year had reached \$1,009,966 in value. The teas imported into this country from Canton, it is well known, are very great in amount, and silks are next in value; in return for which we export ginseng unmanufactured, and domestic cottons. The foreign articles exported are specie, quicksilver, opium, woollen and cotton cloths. In a former number of this journal allusion is made to the furs which were originally carried from the northwest coast of America to China,* which constituted a considerable portion of the trade to the empire at that time; and these furs, especially the sea-otter, first transported to that country by Captain Cook, commanded a considerable price. The sealing voyage first made by Captain Kendrick, in a ship which sailed from Boston, induced others to engaged in the enterprise. Our countrymen were accordingly foremost in pushing new expeditions, not only upon the northwest coast of the continent in quest of furs, but also to the islands of the Southern ocean for seals, exhibiting a hardihood and perseverance scarcely exceeded by that which is displayed by our whale fishermen in sailing to the frozen mountains of the north pole, and the torrid climes of the south. The sealing enterprise was commenced, we believe, and carried on for a long time, mainly from the little village of Stonington, in Connecticut, in barks of eighty tons. And it is now pursued mainly by adventurers from that town, who but recently had twelve schooners employed in the service, with an aggregate tonnage of about eight hundred and fifty-five, and manned by two hundred and fifty-two men. From the 11th of June, 1800, to the 9th of January, 1803, the number of sea-otter and seal-skins carried to Canton by our countrymen, was 1,048,750, amounting in value to \$1,600,000. The total amount of the value of our trade to Canton in 1833, was, of imports \$8,363,971, and that of the exports to our own shores during the same period, was \$6,691,413.

Having taken a somewhat rapid view of the more prominent commercial relations of the United States, it may be proper to exhibit, in a compendious form, the total amount of the commerce and navigation of the country during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1840, which we are enabled to do by the last report on that subject, submitted to congress upon the second of March, 1841.

Total amount of imports in 1840	\$107,141,519
Imported in American vessels	.	.	.	\$92,802,352	
" In foreign vessels	.	.	.	14,339,167	
Total exports	132,085,946
Domestic	.	.	.	113,895,634	
Foreign	.	.	.	18,190,312	
Domestic articles exported in American vessels	92,030,898
In foreign vessels	21,864,735
Foreign articles exported in American vessels	13,591,359
In foreign vessels	4,598,958

* The American Fur Trade.

American shipping entered	tons.	1,576,046
Cleared from American ports	"	1,647,009
Foreign shipping entered	"	712,363
" " Cleared	"	706,486
Registered tonnage		899,764½
Enrolled and licensed		1,176,694½
Fishing vessels		104,804½—2,180,764½
Of registered and enrolled tonnage, &c.		
amounting, as before stated, to		2,076,459½
Employed in the whale fishery		136,926½
Tonnage built in the United States, in the year		
ending 30th Sept., 1840: Registered		56,121½
Enrolled		62,187½
Total tons,		118,309½

We have thus taken this rapid view of the commercial relations of the United States, which we have grouped mainly from the state documents last issued by the Secretary of the Treasury, for the purpose of exhibiting the various character and extent of our foreign commerce, omitting all those minute details which might tend to encumber rather than to illustrate. It is seen from this statement that our mercantile relations reach every considerable foreign country with which a commercial intercourse would seem to be a valuable object, and it is evident that from our increasing population and production, this intercourse must be augmented greatly, as new powers of nature are moulded and pressed into the service of man, and new markets are developed abroad. The influence of our commerce thus far has been manifest, not only in furnishing increased sources of enjoyment, but also in multiplying objects of luxury and taste; and its necessary consequence with us hereafter will be, what it has been among other nations, to liberalize the mind, and to advance us to that point of national dignity which will make us respected, not only by ourselves, but by nations abroad. As enterprise seeks out the resources of the soil and augments our wealth, and as a careful and searching national policy, grasping the multiform interests of the country, and familiar with the keen-sighted legislation of foreign states, shall conspire to establish our commercial prosperity upon a solid and permanent basis, may we not hope that in all other respects, the republic will be elevated in the same proportion, and that our own commerce, taking counsel from the abuses of the past, will prove the handmaid of freedom and knowledge, refinement and religion, showering upon us not the flowers only, but the fruits of a pure and highly wrought civilization? Will not the augmentation of our mercantile marine tend, in a great measure, to the increase of our maritime power, and serve as a valuable nursery of our infant navy?

ART. III.—THE BRITISH CORN LAWS.

THERE are few persons in the United States who do not read the newspapers ; and, consequently, become tolerably well informed in relation to the current topics of the day. There are few, therefore, who are ignorant of the fact, that the "Corn Law Question" is now agitating the English nation ; that it has been the principal point on which the late violently contested election has turned ; the principal cause of a political revolution, which has overthrown one political party, and given a triumphant ascendancy to another.

It is not probable, however, that all who have a knowledge of these facts, have a very clear understanding of the corn law question itself. To present an outline of the subject, for the information of the class of general readers, is the object of this article : information the more important, perhaps, from the fact, that in whatever way the British people may settle the question, our own interests will be more or less affected.

Some people think the present generation is running mad in the work of reform. Whether the world is breaking loose from its leading-strings, and venturing forward with a bold but uncertain step, we will not stop to inquire. It is certain, however, that the world is becoming utilitarian ; that few matters, either of principle or practice, will find favor, unless they can bear being tested by the standard of practical expediency. What was done by the "wisdom of our fathers," was, in times past, considered perfect ; but we now find very little veneration for the doings of these fathers, unless they tally with the existing ideas of utility. There is now no dread of novelty : and new opinions are less frequently opposed than formerly, for the mere reason that they are not old and universal.

Opinions upon many subjects, which were once universally received, are now as universally condemned. But while in many departments of science, stores of knowledge have been accumulated, there has been comparatively little improvement in the science of legislation. We find legislators, although they hold in their keeping the whole subject of human happiness, clinging to old opinions with a tenacity altogether astonishing. Legislators frequently refuse to act in the modes indicated by the decided expression of the popular voice. To accomplish reforms, therefore, which the people demand, always requires agitation, frequently convulsions, and sometimes revolution.

It is this kind of agitation, with respect to the corn laws, which now exists in England, and under circumstances, and to a degree, that indicates convulsion of some sort to be not far distant, unless parliament should soon be driven to act upon the subject : and unless, too, that action shall be marked by concession on the part of that interest which, though small in numbers, is sufficiently powerful to monopolize the supply of bread for the whole people of Great Britain.

The landed interest in England, though composed of a few individuals, wields an immense influence in the house of commons. This is owing to various causes. One is the inequality among the different constituencies ;—the great town of Manchester, with its three hundred thousand inhabitants, being entitled to no more than two members, while the borough of Harwich, with only one hundred and ninety-five electors, is entitled to the same number. The qualifications requisite to confer the elective franchise,

are such as must necessarily concentrate in the small constituencies an overwhelming influence in the hands of great proprietors; the electors being so dependent upon the landlords, that, in many of the boroughs not disfranchised by the reform bill, the electors invariably return to parliament the nominees of the aristocratic proprietor of the property. The house of lords is composed almost entirely of land-owners,—an hereditary aristocracy, whose landed estates are, in very many cases, entailed. It is not, therefore, astonishing, that the parliament of Great Britain should, while legislating for the good of the nation in general, be mindful of the interests of the legislators themselves in particular, and that the aristocracy should employ its influence in perpetuating its own privileges.

Corn has been subject to legislation in England from the time of the conquest. Latterly, however, the laws regulating the trade in corn have been framed with an object very different from that aimed at by the earlier enactments.

For a long time the corn laws were intended to secure abundance; both an adequate supply, and a low price. In order to secure this object, the exportation of corn was prohibited; but the prohibition was subsequently modified to a restriction, when wheat bore above a certain price in the market. Other enactments were framed, which it is not necessary here to allude to; but the whole tendency of the laws was to secure to the people an ample supply of cheap bread.

The first important change in this system took place at the close of the revolution, upon the accession of William III. By an act passed 1 William and Mary, the exportation of wheat was not only permitted, but a bounty of five shillings per quarter was paid on all shipped out of the country. This was done to promote the interests of the agriculturists, which were then considered to be of paramount importance. The importation of corn was regulated to promote the same interests, upon the principle of prohibition, or duties equivalent to it, when the price was below a point which might be assumed to be a low price; at a middle and moderate duty, when the price was high; and a free importation, or at most a nominal duty, when corn came to a famine price. It will be readily seen, that this change of system, instead of creating a tendency to low prices, caused prices to tend in the opposite direction. The landed interests, having had a controlling influence in parliament, have hitherto succeeded in maintaining this principle, though with various modifications, to this time; the great object being, to secure to the English wheat-grower a monopoly of the home market, to the entire exclusion of grain of foreign growth.

The present corn law was enacted in 1828, and the following is the rate of duty payable upon the importation of wheat into the ports of the United Kingdom for consumption:

The importation for the purpose of being warehoused, is free.					
When the price is 62s., and under 63s. per quarter, the duty is £1 4s. 8d.					
"	63	"	64	"	" 1 3 8
"	64	"	65	"	" 1 2 8
"	65	"	66	"	" 1 1 8
"	66	"	67	"	" 1 0 8
"	67	"	68	"	" 18 8
"	68	"	69	"	" 16 8
"	69	"	70	"	" 13 8
"	70	"	71	"	" 10 8

When the price is 71s., and under 72s. per quarter, the duty is	6s. 8d.
“ 72 “ 73 “ “	2 8
“ 73 or upwards, “ “	1 0

and when the price is under 62s., the duty rises one shilling per quarter for every shilling the price is reduced.*

The duty on barley, oats, peas, rye, &c., are all regulated upon the same principle.

To ascertain the prices, dealers in grain throughout the kingdom are required to make weekly returns, setting forth the whole quantity, and no more, of British corn bought, either by or for them, during the periods of time to which they refer, with the prices and the names of the sellers respectively.

These returns are collected in upwards of one hundred market towns in the kingdom, by persons appointed for that purpose, called corn inspectors, and by them transmitted to the comptroller of corn returns in London. This officer computes the average in the following manner:

On Thursday of each week, the comptroller takes the returns for the preceding week, including Saturday, and adds the returns therein made, to ascertain the total quantity of corn sold, and the total price. This total price is divided by the total quantity, and the quotient is the average of the week. The average of this week is added with the averages of the five preceding weeks, the total divided by 6, and the result is deemed as the average price, for the purpose of regulating and ascertaining the amount of duties: and the comptroller forthwith transmits the average so ascertained to the collector, or chief officer of the customs, in each of the ports of the United Kingdom, and the duties are levied, according to these averages, on all grain imported into England for consumption. The duties being arranged according to this sliding scale, it is difficult to imagine a system more cunningly devised to protect the British land-owner, at the expense of all other classes.

The benefit is not gained by the nation, as the duties prohibit all importation, until the price of corn approaches that point, at which very little revenue can be collected from it. Nor is it gained by the cultivator of the soil, inasmuch as the higher the price of corn, the greater is the rent demanded by the landlords. The soil of England is divided into great estates, which are held by the nobility and wealthy aristocracy, and the farmers are mostly tenants. Consequently, the only tendency of the corn laws is to swell the rents and incomes of the owners of land.

The averages, being computed in the way we have described, afford in reality a much greater protection than is apparent. The average must be taken for six weeks. To admit corn at the duty of one shilling, requires that it should have borne a high price in market for a long time. If the first week of the six, the price should be 63s., and the next four weeks, 73s., it would require that the price should be as high as 83s. for the sixth week, to make a six weeks' average of 73s. In short, no corn can be admitted, unless at a ruinous duty, except during a period of severe and long-continued scarcity.

* For a tabular statement of the duty payable per barrel on American flour, under the corn laws, and for an account of the average price of wheat in Great Britain in 1840, and other valuable statistics connected with the same subject, see pages 396, 397, and 398, of this Magazine, for October, 1841.—*Ed. Mag.*

The corn laws operate in a way to make the trade in corn essentially a gambling business. Since the manufactures of England have become so extensive, and population has so much increased, the price of corn has been uniformly higher in England than in other countries ; and under a system of reciprocal trade, the English people would naturally consume a good deal of foreign growth. So long, however, as the supply in England is not absolutely short, it cannot be imported. The first symptoms of a short supply are followed by movements, having for their object to get foreign grain into bond, ready to be introduced the moment the averages can be forced up to the proper point. This done, and the operation is attended with an immense profit ; if it fail, it is attended with loss, as a matter of course.

If the profit is realized, it is of course taken from the consumer. But it does not go into the exchequer, nor is the advantage gained by the public. It is gained by the dealers, whose interest is thus identified with the support of monopoly.

When England has a short supply of corn, and is forced to have recourse to other countries, she does not find on hand a surplus ready for her purpose. She is not a regular customer. Consequently no preparations are made to supply her demand. An inevitable consequence is, a sudden rise in price in the markets in which the demand is made, as is the case in every market, when a demand comes of an extraordinary nature. And the difficulty may be still more aggravated by the conduct of other governments ; like the French, for example, who have once prohibited exportation of bread stuffs, when the English harvest has failed.

The demand being extraordinary, the means of payment must be provided out of the usual course of trade. Other nations are not prepared to take, at a moment's notice, English fabrics to the value of six or seven millions sterling ; nor are they ready to give credit for corn, which must be had at a moment's notice. Payment must be made in gold : and the manufacturing and commercial interests are not only deprived of the trade to this extent, which, in the natural course of things, they ought to enjoy, but are subjected to the losses and depreciation of property attendant upon every convulsion in the money market.

The money market in London may be in a tranquil state, trade apparently prosperous, and every thing going on smoothly, when there may occur ten days of wet weather in August, damaging the crops, and exciting alarm for the incoming harvest. The speculators send abroad for grain, and the Bank of England finds itself most dangerously in debt to other countries, and a heavy drain existing upon its treasure. The screw must be applied instantly ; the money market is thrown into an agony of pressure ; the bank itself is in jeopardy. During the occurrence of such a state of things in 1839, it was only by the most extraordinary exertions, aided by a timely loan from the Bank of France, it saved itself from stoppage.

The tendency of prices is to fluctuate violently. The price of 78s. being reached in the average, the ports are opened to admit foreign wheat, at one shilling duty. Immediately there may be a million quarters, (eight million bushels,) which had been previously locked up in warehouses, entered for consumption. So large a quantity thrown into market, naturally causes the price to recede. The averages suddenly fall. The duty

becomes prohibitory, and further supplies are prevented, until the same fluctuating process is again gone over.

The corn laws operate to tax the many for the benefit of the few : that is, the great body, who are all consumers, are taxed indirectly for the comparatively insignificant number who are land-owners. The price at which bread is sold in England is, by the operation of the law, kept at a point far above what its natural price should be, judging from the price at which it can be afforded after paying the government an aggregate revenue equal to what it now receives, and independent of the advantage of paying for it in manufactures. This difference is paid by the consumer, and goes out of his pocket ; therefore, it is a tax : but the national treasury does not receive it, nor does the foreigner ; but it finds its way into the pocket of the land-owner in the shape of an increased rent.

These laws have an important bearing upon the commercial and manufacturing interests of Great Britain, both as respects the foreign and domestic trade ; and also upon the moral and social condition of the working classes.

Great Britain is the great exporter of manufactures of every description ; of cotton, wool, linen, iron, &c. : she has abundance of minerals and raw materials, and from her position, and the skill she has attained in every branch of manufacture, owing to the minute division of labor among her artisans, is capable of supplying other nations with most articles of necessity cheaper than they can supply themselves.

It might be supposed that a trade so extensive would be of immense value ; and it might be so to England, were it not for her own restrictions upon it. Her trade with Europe is not extensive, and is every year diminishing ; for the simple reason, that trade cannot be maintained between two nations when one acts upon the principle of selling, but refusing to buy in return.

The fields of Europe are fertile, and can be made to produce immense quantities of the finest wheat, at prices which would allow it to be delivered in London, upon an average, at about 46s. per quarter, after paying the cost in Poland, and all expense of freight, damage, drying, screening, commissions, insurance, and all other charges. This is lower than the average of prices in England, which appears to have been uniformly higher than 46s. since 1793, except in one instance, in 1822, when the price was 44s. 7d. The operatives of England want this corn : the continental laborers want their manufactures : both are suffering from want of employment ; and both might be profitably employed if they could exchange their productions with each other : yet both are compelled to stand still, as the Englishman is not allowed to receive the corn, which is the only commodity his customer has to give him.

Mr. Keyser, one of the assistant-commissioners recently appointed to inquire into the condition of the hand-loom weavers, says, in his report, that the manufacturing classes attribute their distress to the operation of the corn laws. He says : " Opinions, all tending to the same purport, are variously given, one of which I cannot forbear to quote : '*If I make a piece of cloth, and meet a Frenchman with a sack of corn on his back, I should be glad to exchange ; but up steps a customhouse officer, and won't let me ; and I may eat my cloth if I can.*' A clearer explanation of the effect of the corn laws upon the manufacturing classes in England, it is not within the power of language to give."

The exclusion of continental corn from British ports has led to a system of retaliation on the part of other powers, by means of high protective or prohibitory duties. They have felt themselves forced into it, against their interests and their wishes. Dr. Bowring, who was employed by the English government on a tour of commercial observation in France, Belgium, Switzerland, and other countries, gives it as his decided opinion, that the system of restriction pursued by England has caused retaliatory duties to be imposed by the states on the continent. He thinks the German commercial union would not have been formed, had the policy of the British government been more liberal. The agricultural states of Europe would be glad to receive English manufactures, if they could give corn in return; and would make liberal concessions in their tariffs if they could be met in a corresponding spirit by England: to some of the continental states, however, a relaxation on the part of England would now come too late; manufactures have there got a strong foothold, and the manufacturing interests have become influential. In many articles of manufacture, the Germans now are able to compete successfully with the English in their markets, and would listen to no modification which would tend to give the English manufacturers any advantage. Indeed, by great numbers of the manufacturers of Germany, the repeal of the corn laws of England would be considered a misfortune.

To examine this subject in all its bearings, would be interesting, but would make at least a dozen articles of the length to which it is proper this should be extended. It is the object of this article to give a mere outline of the subject; and, therefore, it only remains here to point out the effects of the corn laws upon the moral and social condition of the English working classes. The effect is prejudicial in the highest degree. In the first place, England is overcrowded with a laboring population. But when the difficulty of obtaining employment is got over, the operative finds his wages fixed at the very lowest point at which he can subsist. As bread is the article of first necessity, so a large part of his scanty earnings must be expended for that article, and the higher the tax upon it, the greater proportion of his wages he expends for it, and the less is left to be expended for clothing, fuel, and other articles of equal necessity; while nothing is left to educate his children, or add to his own domestic enjoyments. In this way the almost universal lack of comfort among the working classes is accounted for, as well as the fact, that, in too many cases, they exist in a state of extreme destitution, distress, and moral degradation.

It is by no means certain that the present exclusive system of England is altogether owing to the corn laws, but there is no doubt the existence of the corn laws has been a powerful support to the exclusive system in other particulars. A landed aristocracy, wielding the law-making power, and desirous to maintain their exclusive privileges, may be supposed to have been quite willing to accede to requests made by other interests for protection; and by this means to divert attention from their own monopoly. A prohibition or restriction having been laid upon some branch of trade, the parties whose interests were adversely affected thereby, were quieted by some restriction made for their benefit; so that the commerce of England has become fettered by a circle of restrictions, that have been thrown around it at various times and for various purposes.

So far the commercial and manufacturing interests of Great Britain have flourished; but, as Lord Palmerston well remarked, it is not in con-

sequence of these restrictions, but in spite of them. It is now under different circumstances than formerly, that England is competing with the rest of the world. The long period of peace, since 1815, has given other nations an opportunity to embark in commerce, and they have not failed to improve it. Other nations have entered into the business of manufacturing, and instead of being longer customers to England, have become her competitors. Consequently, her manufacturing interests are depressed, and her commerce labors under disadvantage.

The merchants and manufacturers have at last discovered the cause of their embarrassments. They have too much protection. The manufacturers are willing to dispense with all protecting duties, and allow other nations to meet them in their own markets, trusting to their superior skill and natural advantages to compete successfully with them—*provided they can have cheap bread*. They ask that machinery may be allowed to be exported, allowing the foreigner the benefit of all their inventions and improvements, in full confidence that they can compete with him, if they can have cheap bread. In fact, the best artisans of England are leaving her, for countries where they can exert their skill, and be free from restriction; so that some relaxation of her system is necessary, if she would not see her commercial and manufacturing interests undermined.

This general system of restriction has also had its influence on the working classes. While other classes of society were protecting themselves by regulations, the working classes have deemed it meet to make restrictions for themselves. Not being influential enough to get enactments by parliament to meet their wishes, they have adopted the more humble, but not less effectual mode of forming combinations; and the manufacturing districts of England are full of them, and completely under their influence: they fix the price of their labor—the hours they will work; in some trades, the number of hands that may be employed. The results of recent inquiry have shown, that no better results have attended their exertions than have attended those of their more aristocratic countrymen; and, in more than one district in England, entire branches of manufacture have been completely annihilated by the operation of these combinations.

It would be interesting to consider the effect the repeal of the corn laws will have upon the trade between this country and England, now that our immense agricultural resources in the west are becoming developed, and our means of transportation are so extensive; but the limits of this paper will not admit of it. It is not too much, however, to predict, that the period is near when not only Englishmen, but people of other nations, will see their true interests, not in restrictive systems, nor in regulations to fetter and clog the free course of commerce: when they will realize that the Almighty has provided abundantly, though unequally, for the supply of the wants of man, and refrain from interposing obstacles to the supply of those who are destitute by those who are overflowing with plenty, who might in return receive the means of supplying wants equally imperative; thus conducing to the mutual happiness and welfare of all mankind.

ART. IV.—THE MORALS OF TRADE.

NUMBER ONE.

EVERY calling and occupation in life has its peculiar trials and temptations; generally in proportion to its privileges are its dangers. It is needful to find what kind of armor is necessary for the particular conflict every one has to fight. This armor, or set of rules, that may guard or shield us, we call the *morals* of the calling in which it is used. Not that there is one set of rules for one calling, and another set of rules for another, which contradict each other; not that there is one kind of morality for ministers, and another kind of morality for merchants. Morality is one and individual, like goodness, like God; but it may be applied to a profession, to a walk in life, to circumstances, so different from other circumstances, as to give it a modification which may entitle it to a name; and hence we have headed our article "*morals of trade.*"

The walk of the merchant is less defined, by public sentiment, than any other. Since all men may be called traders, from those who buy and sell penny whistles, to the great mercantile establishments which regulate the currency of nations; it is so hard to say who is a merchant and who a huckster, who a broker and who a breaker of fortunes, who is respectable and ought not to be so, and who is not in high repute, though never so honest, that the rules, maxims, code and morals, regulations of trade have been left pretty much to themselves, uncollected and often disregarded. Besides, a false and fatal view has obtained, that moral and intellectual progress are somehow out of the reach of the practical men of the world. It has been thought that goodness was a profession like law or medicine; that the culture of the mind was a kind of exclusive business; that such affairs, the pursuit of virtue and the enlargement of the intellect, were quite distinct from the occupations of life. Happily for society, the instincts of men are often stronger than the influence of their theories, and while such notions as we have noticed have been common, the operation of the great laws of God in the heart and mind, have produced what the action of the theory would destroy.

The business of trade is constantly placing a man in an attitude for the training of his heart and mind. No school turns out better pupils; so sharpens the acuteness of the mind; teaches prudence, foresight, cause and effect, the great relations of different parts of the world to one another. Every profession and trade may call into exercise every other. "*Difficile est enim,*" says Cicero, "*in philosophia pauca esse ei nota, cui non sint aut pleraque, aut omnia:*" It is difficult in philosophy, (the philosophy of trade as well as any other philosophy,) for him to know well a few things by whom all or most things are not known. We divide knowledge into departments for convenience and call them by separate names, as if they were distinct; not remembering that there is but one great science, nature,—auxiliary, explanatory of which are all the facts we discover by experience; and then think, in the weak pride of human nature, that we create. There is no scientific knowledge, no nice moral distinctions which would not help the merchant in his calling. He often feels a want and perplexity, which, by good rights, he should attribute to a want of knowledge rather than to ill luck. He makes mis-

takes, miscalculations ; is defrauded and ruined, from the absence of that, with which he thinks he has nothing to do—knowledge. He amasses a fortune, builds up a name, pulls down his small house and erects a palace, and wonders he is not happy, from the absence of that, too, with which he thinks he has nothing to do, except in a very general way—morals. In spite of the wrong notions that are prevalent in the world upon these subjects, men are forced into the acquisition of that, to which if they would add, by voluntary contributions and special effort, the employments of trade would assume the dignity of the learned professions, and stand out with much of the beauty and symmetry of the fine arts. If the code of honor among merchants were misplaced by the code of morals, founded upon the corner-stone of the religion of Jesus Christ, we might look to see the golden age of happiness, contentment, and order, instead of living in daily expectation of disaster, from some secret manœuvre, whose best excuse is not better than a plea of self-interest. If the relations of science and trade were better understood, and more readily acknowledged, we might look for a mercantile prosperity which should, in returning streams, like the just, equable, and beautiful order of nature, water the gardens of learning through the land, and repay to these fountains from which it had drawn its nourishment, encouragement, countenance, and support, until we should be able to realize a general intelligence in our people, broad and deep enough to support, beyond the shadow of a doubt, the pillars of the constitution. In such a state of things what progress might be hoped for the arts, which in their turn would repay fourfold ! How would the comforts and the elegancies of life keep pace with a sense of the true and the beautiful excited in the minds of our people ! Religion, education, trade—all would rejoice together, all having a high common object, the general good and happiness of the nation.

To endeavor to mark out the morals of trade, while the general principle of trade is denounced as a disease in our social condition, were a vain task indeed. Let us then consider what trade is ; whether it is founded in necessity, in philosophy, or, in other words, in right reason.

The whole world may be called a perfect imperfection ; that is, it is a system of wants, desires, and necessities,—imperfect, unsatisfied, as it regards the wishes of man, yet perfect and adapted to the design for which they were instituted by the divine mind. If this earth were heaven, a state of entire happiness, instead of being a place of discipline, trade would not, perhaps, be known in the system of things ; but men would live in a pastoral state, by the side of streams and beneath the shade of spreading beach-trees, where the music of birds, the odor of flowers, and balmy airs would lull them to repose, filled with a sense of beauty, contentment, and peace. No such paradise is ours. We live in a state of labor. It is the order of our being, that if a man do not work neither shall he eat. In the division of labor, trade is one of the contrivances of man's ingenuity for bettering his condition. It is a department, a profession of human industry, and ought to subserve the greatest good of the greatest number. Does it do this ? Would the world be better off, if every man united in his own person what are now distributed among classes of men, and which give to them their names or calling ? All men are occupied either in producing, distributing, or consuming. The last is common to all. And although it would be a happy circumstance if the first two divisions embraced the race, yet the fact that there are consum-

ers, who are neither distributors nor producers, makes such a division necessary. Producers and distributors are again subdivided for mutual convenience, while the non-producing, non-distributing consumers admit of no farther distinction, except in degree of consumption.

Trade is the general name of distribution, and may be united with producing. All farmers, mechanics, artists, teachers, are the producers; while all traders, carriers, agents, are the distributors of wealth, together with the learned professions of law and medicine, who guide and assist in carrying on this great business—the profession of preachers belonging to the producing class, that of teacher. How trade can be dispensed with, or what are the arguments of those who are loud in denouncing it, it is difficult to discover. If the mechanic is improved in his art by giving his attention solely to it, enabling him, by exchange, to command the products of other arts, we see not why the trader is not also improved in his art by an undivided attention to it. The producer wishes to exchange his wheat, his hay, his cotton, for various necessities for his family. Having been occupied in his vocation, he is perhaps ignorant of the texture, soundness, and general value of the various articles needed, and therefore he goes to a person who has made it his study or practice to inform himself upon such points, who makes his purchases for him. In this way he avoids risk: is aided in point of time, convenience, and money; for which aid he pays, by allowing him who acts for him a higher price than he would pay, were he to buy of the original producers of the articles he is in need of. If one may justly pay a lawyer for an opinion respecting the goodness of a title to land; a physician for information respecting diet and exercise, why not also recompense the merchant for his opinion and time? We must notice the truism “that time is money,” which the denouncers of trade seem to have forgotten. Your grocer, at the corner, keeps on hand, at the risk of fire, waste, and damage, goods which, were you to seek them in the places where they were produced, would employ all your time and strength. Is he not to be paid for doing you this service? You are a physician, perhaps, and in his turn he pays you five dollars for the visit of ten minutes; which also is just, as he pays you this, not for that small modicum of your time, but for holding yourself in readiness to attend him; for the expenses of your education; for your library and instruments. In paying you, reference is had to all your relations to time and all your affairs; and he asks the same regard from you in paying him.

Trade then is as necessary as the professions: it is a profession itself, an art; something that is learned; that requires practice, skill, and judgment. It admits of degrees of success, according to the amount of knowledge, industry, and attention bestowed upon it; and, being founded in the wants of society, may have its laws or morals.

When our hearts are pained by the gross immoralities that prevail in large mercantile and manufacturing towns; when we witness the squalid want and disease that hang upon the skirts of a city; the opportunities that are offered, in the general bustle and hurry, for empiricism and deception in all shapes, we feel disposed to doubt if God ever intended men should herd together in such large masses, and, without producing, live by the distribution and exchange of the labor of the husbandman and mechanic. On the other hand, too, we picture in imagination the simplicity and security of rural life; the health and purity of country habits. From amid

the coal-smoke of a city, its noisy cart-wheels, and the tramping of many feet, we turn our minds to that cottage, where our parents perhaps yet live, with its green, velvet fields, its well-known trees, the very shape of whose branches we recollect, its ancient walks, and unpretending, happy appearance. Let not the counting-room or the shop want such dreams and pictures; let them be cherished as sacred; and hugged close to the heart. They will keep alive in us the sympathies of humanity, and purify and freshen those affections which are well-nigh lost or smothered in the jostlings of the crowd and the strife of competition.

Nevertheless, such thoughts contain no argument against trade. The evils incident to cities, the suffering, sickness, and vice, that excite our regret, are the result of the misuse of great privileges; not necessary consequences. It is a law of nature that we must pay for all we have; and suffer for all our faults. A man, living alone in a valley, without intercourse with any human being, could not be guilty of dishonesty, of murder—of any vice that belongs to society; but for this exemption from temptation he would pay dearly by the want of that progress, sympathy, and mutual aid which are the great blessings of the social condition. The opportunities for individual improvement are increased, the more numerous men congregate together. A greater number of examples is furnished, from which to form an opinion upon a given subject; the objects of science, literature, and art, can be conducted upon a larger scale by the contributions of many individuals. The lawyer has his mind full of information from the variety of questions discussed about him. The physician meets the tendency to disease in cities with a sagacity and experimental knowledge he could never have acquired in a narrower sphere, and the clergyman may be lifted to the occasion and speak with an eloquence proportioned to the danger that surrounds our virtue.

All those arts and inventions for convenience, economy, and health, here find their spur and origin, which taking their rise from the necessities of men congregated together, are spread through the towns and villages of the country, where they never could have originated because never absolutely needful. The facilities of speedy intercourse between cities furnish a highway to the farmer for the transportation of himself and his harvest, whither he would go; who, were it not for the energy of trade, might at this very hour be travelling by the side of his ox-team in the dust or mud of the turnpike. The city—the offspring of trade—is the court where a judgment is put upon the value of every article by actual comparison with others of the same kind. Not only is mind compared with mind, but cloth with cloth, wheat with wheat, and machinery with machinery. Here is made a decision in a day or hour, which a long experience only could arrive at by actual personal trial. These are some of the advantages which accrue to the world from what are called the unnatural herding of men together in cities. These can furnish an offset against those evils which, after all, are so many privileges of humanity. From this crime, vice, and poverty about us, can be traced those institutions which make glad the heart of the philanthropist. Truly are we “made perfect by suffering.” What a field for the practice of benevolence and charity! How truly here can it be learned that “it is more blessed to give than receive!”

We shall contend then for the general morality of trade, for these reasons. It is a divine institution. It is the necessary employment of men in a highly social state, which could not exist in any other way. For if all

were producers, they would necessarily be scattered so widely as to be deprived of the advantages we have mentioned. And having established this point as a foundation work, we propose to consider trade in its more particular features, and discover, if possible, what are the principles that ought to govern it.

ART. V.—SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED MERCHANTS.

NUMBER III.

LIFE AND CHARACTER OF THE LATE NICHOLAS BROWN.

It should ever make the heart sorrowful, to see the good among our race passing away from earth ; and thrice so when the conviction forces itself upon us, that we may hardly hope their places will be filled by others so pure and noble. The young may go down to the grave, leaving a spotless name gemmed with many virtues, and beyond the narrow circle of a few friends and mourning relatives, none will know nor sorrow for their going ; and there may be many old men, with silver hair, who in their well-spanned, upright lives, passed quietly and within narrow limits, have done little else than good to all their fellows :—these, too, will be mourned, though perchance not by many, save those they knew and blessed while living ; and yet when these—the young or old—depart, society is much the loser. But when one is taken from us, whose youth reached back to the birth of our republic, whose early years were spent amid the revolutionary struggles of our fathers, whose experience measured our whole being as a nation, and whose memory thronged with the recollections of a period, of which every year leaves fewer living witnesses ; and, when added to all this, an old man is cut down, whose life since boyhood has been one of activity and usefulness, whose public services and noble benefactions have spread widely his reputation and his name ; then ought all to regret his departure, for the whole community sustains a loss, it need not shame to mourn. Such men as these are rare, and soon will pass away forever ; and one of them, Nicholas Brown of Providence, Rhode Island, has just now gone to another world, and slumbers with the dead of ages. He was a merchant—upright and honorable—possessing an adventurous spirit, guided by a judgment that seldom erred. He loved the employment he had chosen, and ardently pursued it during half a century, toiling steadily on, and firmly encountering the dark changes that mark the commercial history of our country during that long period. Fortune smiled upon his labors, and dealt gently by the good ships and rich merchandise he sent forth upon the sea ; and there are few men by whom the well-earned wealth of a long life has been applied so liberally, and for such wise and good purposes, as by him whose death we now record. We applaud the exertions of no man, however adventurous and persevering, whose sole object is the acquisition of riches, that he may hoard them up in the miser's chest. We think such men are oftener a curse than a blessing to the society in which they live ; for their gold enables them to act the oppressor, when, without it, they would be powerless : but he who, like the subject of this sketch, toils for wealth, that with it he may glad the hearts of his fellow-men, and rear up benevolent

institutions to cheer the lives of those whom God afflicts with disease and suffering, deserves to be remembered in gratitude, long after the marble upon his tomb shall have crumbled into dust. Every age can claim a few such men, and right glad are we to know that not the least of these are merchants. We feel a pride as we con over their names and reflect that for many generations, that class of mankind to whose interests we have dedicated this work, have well maintained their station among those who are remembered as the noblest benefactors of our race. They have redeemed the name of the merchant from the reproach it once bore, of worshipping nought save the mammon of gold; they have proved him capable of gathering in wealth on the one hand, and widely and liberally dispensing it on the other; to them we owe many of our most useful and enlightened institutions, and to them we are indebted for much that now sheds a moral and intellectual light over the face of society. And were we called upon to mention one of the present age, who has gone onward upon the earth, spreading about him the blessings we have here mentioned, few could be named who have done more than the man whose life, in its most prominent outlines, we now propose briefly to trace.

Nicholas Brown was a native of New England, and was born on the fourth of April, 1760, at Providence, in the state of Rhode Island. His father was a merchant of considerable eminence, and through life bore the name of an honorable and good man. He was in affluent circumstances, and to this was his son indebted for an education more liberal and finished, than usually falls to the lot of the merchant to acquire. At the age of thirteen he entered Rhode Island College, since named, in honor of himself, Brown University, from whence he graduated before reaching the age of eighteen. But two or three of his classmates, then fifteen in number, are now living: save these few, all have been gathered to their fathers. Towards this institution of learning, he ever evinced the warmest veneration and regard; and during half a century of his life, he was the main pillar of its prosperity. For fifty years after completing his studies within its walls, he was officially and intimately associated with the councils that sustained its rising fame; and most generously did he pour forth his gold for the advancement of its interests. During a period of twenty-nine years he was its treasurer: in 1791, he was elected a member of its Board of Trustees; and from 1825 until his death, he was a member of its Board of Fellows. At different periods of his life, he erected, solely at his own expense, "Hope College," and "Manning Hall," two edifices attached to the University, the latter of which he named in honor of Dr. Manning, who was the president of the institution during the time he pursued his studies there; and whose memory he ever cherished with the utmost respect and admiration. He gave at one time five thousand dollars for the establishment of a professorship; at another, ten thousand dollars towards the erection of Rhode Island Hall, and the president's mansion house, and when the fund of twenty-five thousand dollars was raised for the benefit of the library and of the chemical and philosophical departments, he bestowed towards it the like munificent donation. And it has been estimated, that including his bequest to this University, the whole amount to which it stands debtor to his bounty, falls little, if any, short of one hundred thousand dollars. Under the auspices of such a man, no one need wonder that this temple of learning now ranks deservedly high among its sister institutions in our land; and it affords us deep gratification to know, that ere

death made cold the heart and dark the brain of him whose name it bears, he saw it careering onward in the highest prosperity and usefulness.

But let us return to the earlier periods of his life. When twenty-two his father died, from whom he inherited a handsome fortune ; and had he been like many young men thus situated, whom we are frequently pained to see wasting their time and energies, and all the advantages so lavished upon them, in idle, enervating pleasures ; he, too, would have squandered his patrimony mid the gay round of the world's enjoyments, leaving behind him a name remembered only when read upon his tombstone. He possessed all the elements necessary to pass a life of easy happiness. A liberal education had prepared his mind to enjoy literary pursuits, the conversation of the learned, and the society of the rich and fashionable. Wealth unsought and unearned had descended upon him, placing all these enjoyments within his reach, and inviting him to taste the pleasures that clustered so temptingly around. To resist all these combined attractions, required the exercise of much self-denial, personal control, and a high and honorable ambition. These he possessed, and the romance of life, at that season of youth when the whole world is clad in fancy's brightest colors, was exchanged for the silent counting-room, and the crowded wharf. He became a merchant in the most ample and comprehensive sense of that term ; and in connection with the late Thomas P. Ives, who had married his only sister, commenced his commercial career. Possessing a capital of sufficient magnitude to embark heavily in foreign trade, it was quickly engrossed in wide-spread maritime operations, extending to almost every clime ; and in the diversified risks to which it was exposed, affording ample opportunities to test the strength and sagacity of the mind by which it was controlled. To every emergency he was found fully equal, nor quailed he in those dark hours of anxiety, to which the merchant who trusts his all on the bosom of the deep, is more than any other man liable to experience. Nor were the winds and waves, nor the tempests that dance so wildly upon the sea, his only or worst enemies. Wars troubled the ocean, and armed ships swept its surface ; and the vessel of the peaceful trader was seized and condemned. The French revolution, carrying the destructive policy of restrictive measures in its train, hurled its stormy elements through the commercial world, burying the fortunes and crushing the prospects of hundreds in their course ; and many years later came the struggle between the infant navy of our own country and the colossal maritime power of Great Britain, spreading disasters to the commerce of American merchants throughout every clime and on every sea : and through both these whirlwind periods, firm as rock, stood the mercantile reputation of Brown and Ives ; the mind of its senior partner growing more calm and active, and calling new resources to its aid, as the elements gathered more dark and threatening around the commercial fortunes of his house. That he was honorable in his dealings, and forgot not the probity and integrity of the man, in the gain-loving spirit of the trader, we need hardly affirm ; and this indeed is evidenced in nothing so strongly, as in his long-prospered life ; for seldom do we see the career of half a century flourish, without interruption, upon the earnings of dishonesty and fraud. Added to this honesty of purpose too, which pervaded, and as it were, sanctified every business transaction in which he engaged, was an element of success which we fear is regarded by many as an object of too little importance to repay the toil with which it is acquired, though we

assure all such, that nothing is more essential to enable the merchant to secure a fortunate result to his maritime undertakings :—we mean the possession of an accurate and varied knowledge of the wants and resources of his own, and those of other nations to which his trade extended. Of this information he possessed an amount, which in magnitude and usefulness few in his age had acquired ; and this, combined with that knowledge of the commercial marine enjoyed both by our own and the European world, in which no man was his superior, enabled him to conduct his far-stretching mercantile operations, with a prospect of ultimate success amounting almost to certainty.

Until the death of his partner, in 1836, Mr. Brown continued actively and unremittingly engaged in the employment which had so deeply engrossed his energies for more than forty years, and to which he seemed bound more by habits of industry, an enterprising spirit, and a love of that excitement with which the mind of the adventurous merchant is so much filled, than by any desire to enlarge his already ample fortune. After that event, he engaged less ardently in the busy concerns of life, though until a short time previous to his death, he was accustomed to the daily transaction of business at his counting-room, and was in the constant habit of mingling in the affairs of that active commercial world to which he had become wedded by the ties of half a century. On the 27th of October last, after suffering a considerable period with the dropsy, he died, in the seventy-third year of his age. Of the many who are daily leaving this for another world, there are few whose names will be so warmly and reverently cherished, as the name of this man. Few have lived so long a life, and passed to the tomb less tainted with the vices of the world ; and few, very few there are, who have done less injury and more good unto their fellow men. In public life, he ever pursued a consistent and honorable course. With his politics we have nothing to do :—they were of the old whig school ;—such as were entertained by Washington and Hamilton ; and for these he will not by us be upbraided or censured. It is enough for us to know, that he adhered to this political creed with the sincerity and truthfulness of an upright and honest man. For this,—and it is no common virtue,—he deserves our admiration. For many years he occupied a seat in the legislative councils of his native State, and at one time held the office of first Senator. The duties of these stations he discharged with dignity and honor, not so much swerved by the tyrannical dictates of party spirit, as many others who professed to yield less obedience to its power. The last political act of his existence was performed at Harrisburg. He was a member of the convention that met there to nominate a candidate for the presidency of our Union. He cast his vote for the departed Harrison ; he saw him elevated to a seat a monarch might envy ; he saw him wear his robes of state for a brief season, and then sink into a grave, lowly as the tomb of the mendicant ;—humble as the one soon to be occupied by himself.

In private life the character of Mr. Brown was pure and unexceptionable. Over his temper and passions he exercised an almost perfect control, and nature had endowed him with a kind heart and generous impulses. He was married twice :—to his first wife in 1791. In 1798 she died, and in 1801 he married his second wife, who died in 1836. He has left two sons and five grandchildren. To his family he was ever fondly attached, and few men in domestic life were loved more tenderly. He was gene-

rous and charitable, too, and delighted in making glad the hearts of the poor; and from the beggar who met him in the street and asked alms, he turned not coldly away. Of his public charities we hardly need speak;—they will remain to consecrate his memory, long after this brief notice of his life shall have been cast aside and forgotten. Nor were his benefactions confined to that noble institution we have before mentioned, and which bears his name: the broadest views of the most generous philanthropist, could not have extended them more widely. His gold was freely bestowed to aid the spread of the gospel in heathen lands; and he gave too without ostentation, as becometh the Christian and the good man. Without that parade of godliness which ever detracts so much from the true value of the most liberal bounty, he often assisted the church at home, with heavy contributions; and by the calm and steady influence which the man who passes a long life wisely and well may at all times exercise, aided by the energies of a mind that loved the promotion of good works, he united his exertions with those of others, in advancing the cause of morality and religion, wherever his fortune or personal efforts could accomplish those objects. As he drew nearer the grave, the love he had ever borne his race seemed to grow more strongly upon him, and all the kinder feelings of his nature were manifested with no less warmth than in the prime of manhood. With those whom disease had stricken in mind or body, he had always sympathized; and that while standing on the borders of another world, he forgot not to provide for the afflicted among his fellows, most impressively appears in the following bequest extracted from one of the codicils annexed to his last Will and Testament.

“And whereas it has long been deeply impressed on my mind, that an Insane or Lunatic Hospital, or Retreat for the Insane, should be established upon a firm and permanent basis, under an act of the Legislature, where that unhappy portion of our fellow citizens, who are by the visitation of Providence deprived of their reason, may find a safe retreat and be provided with whatever may be most conducive to their comfort, and to their restoration to a sound state of mind: therefore, for the purpose of aiding an object so desirable, and in the hope that such an establishment may soon be commenced, I do hereby set apart and give, devise and bequeath, the sum of Thirty Thousand Dollars towards the erection of an Insane or Lunatic Hospital, or Retreat for the Insane, or by whatever other name it may be called, to be located in Providence or its vicinity; and I do hereby order and direct my said executors, to pay the said sum of thirty thousand dollars in the promotion and advancement of an institution for that object, trusting, and fully confiding in my executors, that they will carefully examine, and be satisfied that the establishment is placed on a firm and legal basis; and that the payment of the above amount be made at such times and in such sums, as will best promote the desired object, and be least prejudicial to the settlement of my own estates; hoping that my sons and other friends will co-operate in the humane and benevolent design, that the benefits of the Institution may soon be realized.”

This is a generous gift for a most noble purpose, and we trust no time will be lost in incorporating an institution equal in permanency and usefulness to the one contemplated by the departed donor. That it should bear his name upon its portals, to perpetuate the memory of its founder, is a matter of such bare and common justice, as well to him as to his descendants, and all those who love his name, that we need hardly say it

can be called by no other ; and ere long we hope to see "Brown's Retreat for the Insane," rearing its ample architecture in or near the city in which he was born, and loved to dwell. It is not long since, that those whom reason deserted, were treated with as much, nay more cruelty, than the worst of felons ; were chained like raving devils, and made to endure stripes, and starvation, and privations unknown to malefactors ;—as though the most effectual way to restore man's intellect to its majesty and strength, were to treat him like a beast of prey ;—as though, in fact, he had no intellect at all. We do not mean to say that in our own land they have endured such barbarous and unchristian usage ; though until some few years back, we believe more expense and care have been bestowed, and more anxiety manifested, to rid society of the wretched maniac by sequestering him from home and friends, and all the comforts that God's creatures possessed of sane mental faculties enjoy, than were expended in curing the disease that daily shattered his expiring intellect. But could the cells of some private mad-houses, that once disgraced old England, speak, they would tell tales of suffering and horror, endured by their inmates, more dreadful than any we have described, or can picture here. We thank heaven, though, that the cruelties which once cursed the miserable lunatic, rendering his recovery little short of a miracle, no longer exist : a humane, an enlightened system of treatment has been adopted and carried out, both in this and other lands ; and in our own opinion, the liberal bequest we have mentioned could not have been so well bestowed, as for the truly wise and charitable purpose to which it will be appropriated.

From what we have here written of Mr. Brown, no one will doubt that he was a religious and good man. His views of Christianity were broad and comprehensive, and we cannot more clearly and strongly express the opinion he entertained of responsibility to his Maker, than by presenting the following extract from the will we have before mentioned :

"Be it remembered, that whereas I, Nicholas Brown, of the city of Providence, of the county of Providence, in the state of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, merchant, have heretofore made and published my last will and testament, bearing date on the thirtieth day of May, in the year of our Lord 1825, in and by which I made large devises and bequests, and invested extensive trusts and powers severally in my then honored and affectionate wife, Mary Brown ; in my kind and beloved daughter, Ann Brown Francis, then the wife of John B. Francis, Esquire, and in my highly esteemed friend, partner, and brother, Thomas P. Ives, Esq. : and whereas the all-wise Dispenser of events has seen fit, in his infinite wisdom, to remove by death my said wife, daughter, and brother, and has also seen fit mercifully to extend the period of my own earthly existence far beyond what I had reason to expect, thereby affording to me time and opportunity for carrying into effect many of the benevolent plans and designs which formerly I had in view : in order, therefore, to provide for what remains yet to be performed, and under a deep sense of the high account I shall soon be called to render to Him who bestows earthly good and immortal joy, I do hereby revoke and annul my said will under the date aforesaid, and proceed to make, publish, and declare, this as my last will and testament."

We have remarked that Mr. Brown was a Christian man ; but he was no sectarian : nor did he ever make any public declaration of the faith he

worshipped. No man read the scriptures more devoutly, and few attended more steadily in God's temple on the sabbath; and none were more ready than he to discover and trace the hand and the providence of his Maker in all the works of his creation. Through the varied changes of a prolonged life, he maintained a spotless reputation, an honored name: his heart was pure and kind, his sentiments noble: by nearly all who knew him he was loved and revered; and none could say he oppressed the poor, or inflicted wrong upon his fellow-men. His career is closed—he is gathered to his fathers—his body is in the grave—his spirit in a better world.

ART. VI.—FAMILIAR SCENES IN THE LIFE OF A CLERK.

So much of a man's character in after life depends on what kind of an employer he had when young, that it is worthy of being much more seriously considered by parents and young men than it is. How often do we see men, in whom we can trace the effect of this kind of education, and see the exact resemblance of their former masters in the manners, thoughts, habits, and vices, which they have copied unaware! Happily we sometimes see virtues, too, and can trace their foundation to the same sources. This thought has been suggested by a knowledge of the character of the gentleman referred to in the following sketch, whose proper name I have changed, because I have no liberty to use it; and as he still lives, he might not be altogether pleased at being made conspicuous. This gentleman lived in an eastern seaport town, and was a grocer, doing a considerable business. He had a boy apprenticed to him, whose name was John,—certainly no great marvel in these days of so many Johns. Mr. Mason, for so we will call the grocer, carried his principles of honesty as far as any man I ever knew; I had almost said, as far as any man ever ought to do. He made it an invariable rule to tell the whole truth respecting his goods, even their defects. It was the custom then, as well as now, to compound and adulterate wines; and if any person asked him if a wine was pure, he told them no; and he did not stop there, for he told them what it really was. He was also perfectly candid in regard to his neighbors' goods, and I have seen him more than once lose the sale of a chest of tea, of which he was an excellent judge, and on which he would have made a profit of six or eight dollars in those days of high prices, in consequence of telling his customer that his neighbor had better. The effect of this course, after many years, was to gain him a reputation, and inspire such a confidence, that he could sell any sort of goods at higher prices than other people could, because purchasers, who did not depend entirely on their own judgment, knew they would not be deceived. But John, at the time, did not like it much; he thought it was going rather too far, and as he soon began to take a lead in the store, being a little disposed to mischief, he would sometimes annoy Mr. Mason by the most extravagant encomium in his hearing on goods that would not bear it. And sometimes he carried his impudence so far, as to assert, in his hearing, that his recommendations were on the opinion and judgment of Mr. Mason. They had a neighbor, a drygoods shop-keeper, who was a notorious liar; and he had indulged

the habit so long, that he had become careless, and sometimes committed himself most grossly. Him, in the recklessness of his fun, John would imitate and caricature in his palaver with customers. When a particular article was called for, John would say, "This is just like it, *only a great deal more so*;" and in spite of correction several times, he frequently indulged his frolicsomeness, and sometimes imposed on a customer. From the experience I have had as a clerk in a store, I am induced to think that much of what is called cheating, is the result of a bantering among the boys, to see who will perform the greatest feat, or show the longest tongue, or use most soft soap, as the slang phrase among them is. It was the practice of Mr. Mason in his store, as well as in his family, to show the effect of bad habits, by illustrating their consequences by example, as often as he had opportunity, rather than to administer correction himself. He was vigilant in caution; and if that was not attended to, the first opportunity was embraced to make an example, and John had laid himself open to the latter course.

One morning an enraged countryman came into the store with very angry looks; he had left a team in the street, and held a goad-stick in his hand. "Mr. Mason," said the angry countryman, "I bought a paper of nutmegs here in your store, and when I got home, they were more than half walnuts; and that's the young villain that I bought 'em of," pointing to John.

"John," said Mr. Mason, "did you sell the man walnuts for nutmegs?"

"No, sir," was the ready answer.

"You lie, you little villain," said the countryman, still more enraged at his assurance.

"The fact is, he does tell a great many lies," said Mr. Mason; "and I don't know what to do with him, unless I leave you to chastise him:" and with this license to his enraged feelings, the countryman made at John with his goad-stick, which compelled him to scamper up a flight of stairs; and he threw down the scuttle after him, that, in its fall, crushed the countryman's hat over his eyes, and nothing allayed his wrath. These scuttle-doors were, in those days, common in warehouses, at the heads of stairs, instead of casements built around them, as now; and John fastened it down, and kept the countryman from following him, not, however, without having got two or three licks of the goad-stick across his legs and thighs, as he went up the stairs.

Mr. Mason, who had just come into the store, withdrew to the counting-room, but with scarcely repressed laughter, determined to let things take their course; while the rest of us, and you will see that I was one of the number, were enjoying John's predicament with great glee. When, however, Mr. Mason saw that the countryman was foiled, and was still complaining of the abuse, while John was secure in his beleaguered position, he came out again, and told the countryman that, if he had been imposed upon, it should be made up to him, trouble and all.

John, who overheard what was said, now came to the hoist-away, and rubbing his thighs, at the same time said, "If the goose had taken the trouble to weigh his nutmegs, he would have found that I put in the walnuts gratis."

"Oh, you gave them to him, did you?"

"Yes, sir, I threw in a handful for the children to crack," said John, laughing at the same time.

"You were certainly very considerate," said Mr. Mason, turning away, and unable to repress a sympathy with John's mirth.

"Well, now, if that ain't a young scamp," said the countryman, his features relaxing into a grin, as he saw through the truth.

The fact was, John had thrown in the handful of walnuts unobserved, and enjoyed beforehand all the countryman's disappointment and rage when he should see them, but without anticipating the present consequence of it. Mr. Mason improved the opportunity to say, when the countryman was gone, "There was no great harm in the trick, John, but truth is always sacred, and trifling improper, and I hope you will hereafter think so too."

The moral was good, and as far as might be expected from a mind so young and buoyant as his, John did correct his habit of trifling with his customers and his word.

Mr. Mason always encouraged in his boys a spirit of trade in their own behalf, and on purpose that they might procure for themselves a reasonable amount of pocket-money, and thus be kept from temptation to be dishonest towards him; they were allowed the privilege of selling certain light articles for their own benefit; and an extensive grocery-store, in a small town, affords a better opportunity for that than in this city, where the separate dealers in each article are so much more by themselves. There were, also, in former times, many opportunities of adventures by sea, particularly to the West Indies, from ports where lumbering and fishing are carried on. These opportunities are grown less now, from the fact, that we then had access to every island in the Atlantic: and could the young adventurers in the New England states be consulted in the matter, I am persuaded that, one and all, they would condemn the policy that has surrendered the trade of so many of them.

The manner of sailing West India vessels formerly, was to give the captain so much wages, and so much privilege of freight; and the mate in the same manner. It was the plan of young adventurers, therefore, to commit their enterprises to the care of the captain or mate on half-profits; thus they paid no freight, if none was made; the captain lost nothing but his privilege of freight, if sales were bad; and so the risk was shared between them. Some of the largest fortunes ever made in New England by commerce, have begun in this way. The Hon. William Gray, who was for many years the richest man in Boston, was known to have made his first enterprise in this manner, which, with time and industry, swelled into rich argosies, covering every sea; and it was familiarly said, for twenty years, "No wind could blow that was not fair for him."

Our young friend, John, was of an adventurous turn, and a little speculative withal; but he was a poor, apprenticed boy, and had no money. As soon, however, as Mr. Mason had discovered what his turn was, and found that he was worthy of being encouraged, he made him a present of some boxes of fish, a keg of butter, and a box of tallow candles; and with these John commenced his career of commercial life, then only fourteen years old. With these for his capital, he pursued a regular course of adventure, and with varied success; sometimes making a loss, but never sinking his capital. When he had increased his capital a little, he divided his interest into several adventures, instead of seeking it all in one; and it was not more than a year and a half before John became a prosperous merchant, on a small scale. He entered into all the calculations of a merchant, and

took as lively an interest in the markets as if he had owned half a dozen ships, laden on his own account, instead of as many little adventures, worth, perhaps, twenty dollars each. He watched the ship-news with eagerness and constancy, and frequently used to say, that his vessels had been spoken so and so. He watched the weather and the gales, too, and was as much gratified on the safe arrival of an expected vessel, as if she had been an Indiaman. But Mr. Mason admonished him to be prudent; and he, therefore, made an open policy with Capt. W., a rich and retired ship-master, to undertake for him all his sea-risks, for the premium of five per cent; which was regularly paid, and the several risks as regularly endorsed on the policy as at any insurance office.

He contrived every means to save outlay; and, being expert with the pen and at figures, he would go to the West India captains' houses, and make up their accounts for them, at night, and in return, get his adventure carried free of charge of either freight or profits. Every thing went prosperously, and John was set down as a great merchant and a rich man. But, alas! his success ruined him. The time was coming when, like Dogberry, John would be compelled to say, that he, too, had had his losses.

He had accumulated some hundreds of dollars, and then, like many of a larger business, and at a later day, in common phrase, he launched out. His credit was good for what he would buy; and this facility induced him to gratify his spirit of enterprise to use it,—and perhaps his pride was a little flattered, too, by the distinction,—and he got in debt to double the amount of his capital. Oh! fatal mistake!

John's returns of all his adventures came home, costing the highest price, in that fatal summer, twenty-four years ago, which many in this city will recollect, when West India produce declined one half in value. Of course, John lost all his capital, and it was even doubtful if he could pay his debts; and, consequently, that he would fail in business, when no more than seventeen years old.

Then, for the first time, I saw that picture which I have since seen a thousand times repeated. Who has ever seen a man when his affairs are becoming desperate, and has forgotten the picture? He first grows cross and petulant; by degrees he is more and more uneasy, and walks to and fro in his office, with his head down and his hands in his pockets; he is less polite to his customers, and less communicative with his friends; he walks hurriedly in the street, and passes people without knowing it; reads the newspaper paragraph but half through, and heaves a sigh when he sits down to pore over his cash-book or his bill-book; he eats less, and eats in a hurry; his form shrinks, and his coat hangs loose upon him; his cheeks grow lank, and his eyes stick out; he envies the comfortable, plodding, pains-taking man, who has gone on, content with moderate gains, and never exposing himself to great vicissitudes. The case is desperate with him, and the tragedy must soon come to a close for good or ill.

John had every one of these symptoms, and felt every one of the pangs which the most sensitive mind ever feels. One after another, as "his vessels" arrived, he anxiously inquired, "Captain, what have you got for me?" "Molasses—sugar," was the constant reply; and every time he heard it, his pulse beat a stroke the less, until hope sunk to despondency.

Mr. Mason observed it all; and when he had permitted John to suffer the full penalty of his imprudence, one night, after a good day's work in

the store, he called him into the counting-room, and, on an examination of his affairs, it appeared that he would be deficient about seventy dollars to pay his debts. "Well, John," said he, "this is not the way that you have seen my business done;" and John looked guilty: "but you shall not fail; here are the seventy dollars; pay your debts; and remember never again 'to put all your eggs into one basket.'"

Never face beamed with a brighter glow of pleasure than John's at this moment. I shall never forget it. He became devoted to his master's business as if it had been his own, gained his entire confidence, and, although but an apprentice boy, without money and without friends, in return for his devotion, the day that he was twenty-one years old, he was made a partner in an extensive concern, with a large capital. Mr. Mason has often asserted, that the seventy dollars was the best investment he ever made; while John, alias Mr. —, always brings up the subject of his early bankruptcy whenever tempted to undertake large operations.

ART. VII.—THE COMPUTATION OF INTEREST.

THE value of any methods of computation simpler than those in use, as exact and more expeditious, must be too apparent to require any argument or discussion; and the excuse, (if any be needed,) for the tediousness of this article will be found in the practical utility of the methods attempted to be conveyed. It may be premised that some are already in possession of the knowledge of these means, but so many are ignorant of them, that we feel justified in offering them for the consideration of the readers of this magazine, especially to clerks and book-keepers, to whom they are of daily and constant value.

Besides the advantage of the saving of time and labor, there is another, and an important one, which urges us to this communication. It is, that the knowledge of these methods will present the labor of the clerk to him in a new aspect, it will tend to relieve his tasks of their mechanical character, and infuse a species of delight in the application of these processes. The experience of many will confirm us in the remark, that of all tasks of the clerk, none are performed with more unwillingness than those which we propose to simplify and relieve; and it may be added, when these methods have been fully understood, we have often witnessed the feelings of satisfaction and delight with which they have been applied. It must be apparent that where there has been frequent repetition of a process, it is desirable, if possible, to simplify it, that labor and time may not be unnecessarily expended for the future. The advantages to be derived from an habitual systematic attempt at simplification are more numerous than can at this time be stated; they are many and various; and rules formed and adopted, which are based upon a close investigation of any principles involved in mercantile transactions, will save much needless labor and perplexity. We should not be content, therefore, while we suppose ourselves in possession of useful knowledge, to retain it unshared with others: if it has been valuable to us, it may be to them also, and its usefulness to us is unaffected by its becoming common property.

It may be thought that the mind would become burdened and hindered

in its operations by the presence of many rules. This, however, is true only when the basis or principle of those rules is not thoroughly investigated and understood. The application of rules, on the contrary, is of extreme facility, when we are conversant with principles—it is immediate, almost instinctive, and the mind is rarely conscious of the existence of the rule. We do not aim, therefore, to state rules, but to illustrate and familiarize the mind with principles, introducing rules only as perceptible deductions from these principles. To exhibit the necessity of a clear conception of the principle, and the worthlessness of a mere and seemingly arbitrary rule; suppose it be stated that to ascertain the interest on any amount for 165 days at six per cent per annum, you should divide the principal by 40, and to the dividend add its one tenth—or divide one tenth of the principal by 4, and to that dividend add its one tenth—or again, divide one per cent of the principal by $\frac{1}{4}$, and to the dividend add its one tenth: it may really be questioned whether such a rule would prove any thing but a hindrance, and determine us to adhere to the tedious methods of our arithmetics; yet it will be seen that if the rule were well known, the process of computation would be very rapid, and it would be found mathematically exact. Now if every application of an extremely simple and apparent principle is to be denominated a rule, this is precisely the readiest rule which can be given for ascertaining the interest on any given sum for that time; and, also, (substituting for the word *principal*, the word *days*,) one of the methods of ascertaining the interest on 165 dollars for any given time.

What we propose to communicate is this, a simple and easy method for the computation of interest at six per cent, (and consequently at seven per cent,) far more speedy than any method in general use, yielding results with accuracy and a much greater rapidity than any books or tables of interest in existence—and also a method for the equation of payments, as simple and exact as that generally adopted, and far more expeditious. It may be stated that by this method amounts of interest are ascertained by the combination of only two or three simple quotients or products, and most frequently by the combination of only two; and the reader must perhaps submit to some tediousness and prolixity, as we aim at making these methods distinctly understood and generally applied. We shall endeavor to make application of the principle to varieties of instances, and to elucidate each application by examples numerous enough to commend the method to notice.

The ordinary method for the computation of interest is the solution of a problem in proportion. To ascertain the interest at six per cent. per annum, we multiply the principal by the days, and divide the product by 6000—or we multiply the dollars of the principal, (viz. one per cent of the principal,) by the days and divide by 60. The true proportion which is solved by the usual process is this—

As 6000 : principal :: days : Answer.

or As 60 : 1 per ct. of principal :: days : Ans.

To solve any problem in proportion, we multiply the second term by the third, and divide the product by the first.—(The product of the multiplication of the second and third terms will also be the product of the multiplication of the first and fourth terms.) Therefore, if we multiply the interest on any sum for one year by any number of days, and divide by the days of the year, we shall obtain a correct result. The reason is obvious. This

has been our process : we have multiplied the interest for one year by a given number, (of days,) and the product is the interest for that given number of years, but, as we desire the answer for days, instead of years, we must divide that product by the number of days in the year. It is needful that we examine some of the properties of proportions, as they will afford us principles from which to construct rules—and it is worth the attention of the curious in such matters to observe the various transpositions of a correctly stated proportion. Every proportion admits of a variety of statements, and many rules arise from these statements. We have occasion to notice the following :

As 1st term : 2d term :: 3d term : 4th term, say as 2 : 4 :: 8 : 16
or, As 1st : 3d :: 2d : 4th

To obtain the 4th term, we may adopt either of these methods :

$$\begin{array}{ll} 2d \times 3d \div 1st = 4th & \text{Ex. } 4 \times 8 \div 2 = 16 \\ \text{or } 3d \times 2d \div 1st = 4th & \text{Ex. } 8 \times 4 \div 2 = 16 \\ \text{or } 3d \div 1st \times 2d = 4th & \text{Ex. } 8 \div 2 \times 4 = 16 \\ \text{or } 2d \div 1st \times 3d = 4th & \text{Ex. } 4 \div 2 \times 8 = 16 \end{array}$$

The first property to be noticed is, that the second and third terms may be transposed—as 6000 : prin. :: days : int.

or, as 6000 : days :: prin. : int.

It follows, that the interest of any amount for a given number of days will be the same if the dollars and days be transposed. Thus, if we had sought the interest of one cent for 500 years at 6 per cent, it would have been instantly found by transposition ; the interest being the same as the interest of 500 cents, or 5 dollars, for one year, viz. 30 cents.

Examples.

The interest of \$6 for 180 days—the interest of \$180 for 6 days.

The interest of \$10 for 246 days—the interest of \$246 for 10 days.

The interest of \$18 for 320 days—the interest of \$320 for 18 days.

Examples may easily be multiplied, and the value of transposition will soon become very apparent. It is especially applicable to the computation of interest on small amounts for long times.

Similar fractional or decimal parts of the first two terms bear the same relation to each other as the original terms.

And, (the second and third terms being transposable,) if the first term and either of the others be divided by a common divisor, the proportion will remain unaffected. Now, if that common divisor be one of the terms of the proportion, we shall be enabled to reduce the proportion to its simplest statement—suppose the proportion usually solved,

As 60 : 1 per cent of principal :: days : Ans. •

If either the number of dollars, (i. e. one per cent of the principal,) or the number of days be divided by 60, the remaining term may be multiplied by the dividend.

Required the interest of—

120 dollars for 81 days ; multiply 81 by 2 = 1.62 Ans.

840 dollars for 98 days ; multiply 98 by 14 = 13.72 “

1500 dollars for 88 days ; multiply 88 by 25 = 22.00 “

1860 dollars for 104 days ; multiply 104 by 31 = 32.24 “

546 dollars for 240 days ; multiply 546 by 4 = 21.84 “

As one sum in every 60 is divisible by 60, this method will apply in one

case in every thirty : and we may add, if either the dollars or the days be divisible by six, the remaining term may be multiplied by the dividend, and the answer obtained by striking off the right hand figure from the product. This is applicable especially to small sums or small times.

Example—Required the interest of—

12 dollars for 170 days ; multiply 170 by 2 (and strike off the right hand figure)=.34 cents.

1330 dollars for 18 days ; multiply 1330 by 3 (and strike off the right hand figure)=3.99.

24 dollars for 213 days ; multiply 213 by 4 (and strike off the right hand figure)=.85 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Examples may be multiplied till the rule is familiar.

If the second term be *multiplied* by any number, and the third term be divided by the same number, the proportion will be unaffected ; and, also, if the third term be *multiplied*, and the second term *divided*, the result will be the same.* This property is valuable when either the dollars or days be divisible by a decimal, the remaining term being multiplied by the same decimal.

Required the interest of—

1300 dollars for 173 days=17.300 dollars for 13 days.

500 dollars for 94 days= 9.400 dollars for 5 days.

2000 dollars for 28 days=28.000 dollars for 2 days.

1452 dollars for 310 days=14.520 dollars for 31 days.

The advantage of these changes will be made very apparent as we proceed.

It may be observed, that it is sometimes easier to compute the interest on two items than upon one. In this case, we may simplify our problem and expedite the result, by making two ; thus—required the interest on 1206 dollars for 233 days, (i. e. 1200 dollars for 233 days, and 6 dollars for 233 days, or 2330 dollars for 120 days, and 233 dollars for 6 days)—we estimate first the interest of 2330 dollars for 120 days, (as 120 is divisible by 60, we multiply 2330 by 2,) viz. 46.60 ; and add the interest of 233 dollars for 6 days, (as the days are divisible by 6, from 233 we strike off the right hand figure,) viz. 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ cts. ; and we have a product of 46.83 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Other applications, which will much facilitate our computations, will be suggested by a consideration of these properties of proportions.

We have said that the ordinary method of the computation of interest is the solution of a problem in proportion, and stated that this is the proportion : as 6000 : principal :: days : interest.

Or, as 60 : 1 per cent of principal :: days : interest.

The following statement will make this sufficiently evident :

As 6 per cent : 360 days :: 100 per cent : 6000 days.

Therefore the interest on any sum for 6000 days will be 100 per cent.

It follows, that 600 days will yield 10 per cent.

“ 60 days will yield 1 per cent.

“ 6 days will yield $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

For example, the interest on—

14.650 dollars for 600 days will be \$1465.

1.624 dollars for 600 days will be \$162.40.

1.935 dollars for 60 days will be \$19.35.

* In fact, any two sums, yielding the same product as the multiplication of the second and third terms, may occupy the places of those terms.

14.789 dollars for 60 days will be \$147.89.

1420 dollars for 6 days will be \$142.

136.595 dollars for 6 days will be \$136.59½.

If we add a cipher to the dollars of the principal, we shall have the interest for 600 days, expressed in dollars and cents. The dollars of the principal will express the interest, in dollars and cents, for 60 days; and if from the dollars of the principal we strike off the right hand figure, the remaining figures at the left will express the interest, in dollars and cents, for 6 days.

Now, aliquot parts of 600, 60, and 6 combined, and aliquot parts of those aliquot parts, will readily furnish us with any desired number of days. The interest for 1 day will be $\frac{1}{6}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent, (6 days yielding $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.)

<i>Example.</i>	\$360	\$540	\$840	\$1260	\$960	\$299
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
<i>Ans.</i>	6 cts	9 cts	14 cts	21 cts	16 cts	5 cts

The interest for 2 days will be $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

<i>Example.</i>	\$870	\$450	\$990	\$1530	\$90	\$1620
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
<i>Ans.</i>	29 cts	15 cts	33 cts	51 cts	3 cts	54 cts

The interest for 3 days will be $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.

<i>Example.</i>	\$1460	\$820	\$580	\$80	\$3680	\$10581
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
<i>Ans.</i>	.73	.41	.29	.04	1.84	5.29

The interest for 4 days will be $\frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{5}$.

<i>Example.</i>	\$300	\$840	\$1860	\$90
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
<i>Ans.</i>	30—10=20 cts	84—28=56 cts	1.86—62=1.24	9—3=6 cts

The interest for 5 days will be $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{5}$.

<i>Example.</i>	\$540	\$180	\$2.460	\$840
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
<i>Ans.</i>	54—9=45 cts	18—3=15 cts	246—41=2.05	84—14=70 cts

In like manner, we may take aliquot parts of 60 days; thus—

The interest for 10 days is $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$960 for 10 days=1.60 *Ans.*

The interest for 12 days is $\frac{1}{5}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$1.550 for 12 days=3.10 *Ans.*

The interest for 15 days is $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$5.68 for 15 days=1.42 *Ans.*

The interest for 20 days is $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$1161 for 20 days=3.87 *Ans.*

The interest for 30 days is $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent.

Example. \$24.698 for 30 days=123.49 *Ans.*

The interest for 40 days is $\frac{2}{3}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{3}$.

Example. \$1545 for 40 days=15.45—5.15=10.30 *Ans.*

The interest for 50 days is $\frac{5}{6}$ of 1 per cent; i. e. 1 per cent, less its $\frac{1}{6}$.

Example. \$1866 for 50 days=18.66—3.11=15.55 *Ans.*

In the same manner we may take aliquot parts of 600 days; thus—

The interest for 75 days is $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$1256 for 75 days, divide 125.60 by 8 = 15.70 *Ans.*

The interest for 3 months and 10 days, or 100 days, is $\frac{1}{3}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$159 for 100 days, divide 15.90 by 6 = 2.65 *Ans.*

The interest for 5 months, or 150 days, is $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$3264 for 150 days = 81.60 *Ans.*

The interest for 6 months and 20 days, or 200 days, is $\frac{2}{3}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$873 for 200 days = 29.10 *Ans.*

The interest for 10 months, or 300 days, is $\frac{3}{4}$ of 10 per cent.

Example. \$9654 for 300 days = 452.70 *Ans.*

And so on. Examples should be multiplied, and it will be seen that answers will be obtained instantly.

We would suggest, that much time may be saved, and liability to error prevented, by using the sums already written in the book or account, instead of transcribing them, in order to make our estimates; and further, when the answer is obtained, by placing it at once in its appropriate column: suppose it were required to ascertain the interest on \$1640 for 68 days; using the sum as already stated in the book or account; instead of transcribing it, and setting down the answer at once in its appropriate column—it would be needful to make but *two* figures, viz. 82, to arrive at our result.

We shall now proceed to some instances of the combination of the aliquot parts of 6, 60, and 600 days. It will occasionally need some reflection to decide upon the readiest combinations; but decisions having been once made will not be soon forgotten: We can only enumerate some of them, sufficient to illustrate their utility; and commend the subject to the study and attention of those who wish to attain proficiency.

We obtain the interest for—

7 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{8}$; i. e. 6 days and 1 day.

8 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{8}$; i. e. 6 days and 2 days.

9 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{8}$; i. e. 6 days and 3 days.

10 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 6; i. e. $\frac{1}{6}$ of 60 days.

11 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{6}$; i. e. 10 days and 1 day.

12 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. by 2; i. e. twice 6 days.

13 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 10 days and 3 days.

14 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{6}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days, less 6 days.

15 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 4; i. e. $\frac{1}{4}$ of 60 days.

16 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 10 days and 6 days.

17 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days less 3 days.

18 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. by 3; i. e. three times 6 days.

19 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct., or deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{4}$ of its $\frac{1}{4}$; i. e. 20 days less 1 day.

20 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 3; i. e. $\frac{1}{3}$ of 60 days.

21 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{3}$ of its $\frac{1}{3}$; i. e. 20 days and 1 day.

22 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{3}$; i. e. 20 days and 2 days.

23 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct.; i. e. 20 days and 3 days.

24 days, by multiplying $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. by 4; i. e. four times 6 days.

25 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{3}$; i. e. 20 days and 5 days.

26 days, by adding to $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 p. ct. ; i. e. 20 days and 6 days.

27 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. its $\frac{1}{8}$; i. e. 30 days less 3 days.

28 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{8}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 p. ct. ; i. e. 30 days less 2 days.

29 days, by deducting from $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 p. ct. $\frac{1}{8}$ of its $\frac{1}{8}$; i. e. 30 days less 1 day.

30 days, by dividing 1 p. ct. by 2.

There are other methods for ascertaining the interest for any number of days, less than thirty, which are sometimes preferable to these ; the preference arises from the peculiar applicability of the methods to the amounts to be estimated. For instance, to ascertain the interest for 17 days ; we may—

From the interest for 20 days, deduct the interest for 3 days ;

Or, to the interest for 15 days, add the interest for 2 days ;

Or, from the interest for 18 days, deduct the interest for one day ;

Or, to the interest for 12 days, add the interest for 5 days.

It may be thought that the portions of time and labor which are saved by the selection of a method peculiarly applicable to the problem, and by the other processes we have suggested, will be inconsiderable : however true this is, when they are separately considered, they will be found to make a large aggregate ; nor can we estimate the probable value of the time which has been thus redeemed.

We shall now proceed to instance the advantage of some of the combinations of the aliquot parts, in obtaining interest for a greater number of days than 30. We have already shown how rapidly results can be obtained for tens of days, from 10 days to 60 days.

For 70 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{1}{4}$.

80 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{1}{2}$.

90 days, add to 1 per cent. its $\frac{3}{4}$.

To enumerate all the combinations, would swell this article to a tedious length, and deprive the reader of the pleasure and advantage of making his own combinations. The following will suffice :

For 57 ds. ; 1 per ct. less $\frac{1}{4}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 60 ds. less 3 ds.

54 ds. ; 1 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 60 ds. less 6 ds.

48 ds. ; 1 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{2}$, i. e., 60 ds. less 12 ds.

88 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 pr. ct. less twice $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 pr. ct., i. e., 100 ds. less 12 ds.

94 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 100 ds. less 6 ds.

108 ds. ; 2 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 120 ds. less 12 ds.

114 ds. ; 2 per ct. less $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 120 ds. less 6 ds.

132 ds. ; 2 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 120 ds. and 12 ds.

135 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 150 ds. less 15 ds.

144 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 150 ds. less 6 ds.

162 ds. ; 3 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 180 ds. less 18 ds.

165 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 150 ds. and 15 ds.

168 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and three times $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 150 ds. and 18 ds.

175 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{4}$, i. e., 150 ds. and 25 ds.

182 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less three times $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 18 ds ; or 3 per ct. and $\frac{1}{8}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 180 ds. and 2 ds.

185 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 15 ds.

190 ds. ; $\frac{1}{4}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{2}$ of its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 10 ds.

192 ds. ; 3 per ct. and twice $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 180 ds. and 12 ds.

For 194 ds. ; $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1 per ct., i. e., 200 ds. less 6 ds.

195 ds. ; $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10 per ct. less $\frac{1}{4}$ of its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 5 ds.

198 ds. ; 3 per ct. and its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 180 ds. and 18 ds. ; or, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10 per ct. less its $\frac{1}{8}$, i. e., 200 ds. less 2 ds.

These combinations may be multiplied, and examples solved, till the mind is familiarized with them ; and we repeat, that though it may occasionally require some reflection to decide upon the readiest combinations, yet decisions having been once formed will not be soon forgotten. And it will be found that, in most cases, results are produced by the combination of only two simple *products*, or *quotients*, obtained by a multiplication or division, by numbers not exceeding 10, and frequently without obliging us to make any figures, but those of the answer. It should be distinctly remembered that the principal, as already stated in the book or account, expresses the interest for 6 days, for 60 days, and 600 days, and that the labor and time of transcribing it may always be saved ; and that results, when obtained, may be placed at once in the column appropriated to them. These combinations, in connection with rules deduced from a knowledge of the few properties of proportions stated, will enable us to compute interest at six per cent, with remarkable expedition and accuracy. For our probability of a correct result is in exactly reverse ratio to the necessary length of our calculation ; the shorter the process, the less the liability to error. The rapidity of calculation by these methods is almost incredible ; we have known from ten to seventeen problems to be solved in one minute.

The legal interest of this state is seven per cent, but these methods apply only to six per cent, and it is customary to add to each item its one sixth ; but if we were computing the interest on an account current, at seven per cent, the addition to each item of its one sixth would not be necessary ; the interest may be estimated at six per cent, and to the balance of this interest its one sixth may be added. Liability to error is lessened by this process, and frequently as much time will be saved as was necessary to make the original estimates. The French manner of computing interest illustrates the advantage of this method ; the number of francs is multiplied by the days, and the products placed in columns allotted to that purpose, one on each side of the account : the balance of the totals of these products is divided, and thus many divisions are prevented. This method may be adopted in estimating interest at any rate per annum ; in estimating bank discounts ; equitable interest at six per cent ; and in bringing the assets and liabilities of a mercantile establishment to a cash value at the close of the year.

It is usage with many to estimate the interest by calendar months and days ; in this case we can multiply one per cent of the principal by half the number of months, and compute the days by the methods here given.

If we estimate by days, a time table may be found useful, constructed to show the number of days from any day in one month to the same day in any other month, the difference between the days to be added or deducted, as the case may require. But if a table of this kind be not used, much time may be saved by adding to, or deducting from, the number of days for the previous time, the difference between that time and the next following.

In the next number of this Magazine, we shall show the application of these methods to the Equation of Payments, and explain the principle from which rules may be constructed for the speedy equalization of terms of credit.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

RECENT DECISIONS IN THE UNITED STATES COURTS.

FOREIGN ATTACHMENT—INSURANCE.

Superior Court, Connecticut, Sept., 1841, at Hartford. Jones v. Aetna Insurance Company.

This was an action of *scire facias*, brought to recover the amount of a judgment obtained by the present plaintiff, residing in Montreal, in Lower Canada, against Francis Baby, formerly a resident of Lower Canada, but now of Albany, in the state of New York, at the November term of the county court, 1838, for this county, for the sum of one thousand one hundred and seventy-four dollars and ninety-five cents damages, and thirteen dollars and sixty-eight cents costs of suit. The plaintiff sought to recover the amount of the aforesaid judgment of the Aetna Insurance Company by process of foreign attachment, on the ground that, at the time of the commencement of the former suit, said company was indebted to said Baby. It appeared in evidence, that said company had become indebted upon a policy of insurance, effected upon property belonging to the wife of said Baby; and that previously to the marriage of said Baby, the property belonging to his wife was settled upon her in such a manner as to be beyond the reach or disposition of her husband. It appeared also, that Mr. Baby had acted as the agent of his wife in the management of her property. The great question in this case was, whether the indebtedness of said company to Mrs. Baby upon a policy of insurance effected upon property, which, by the laws of Canada, had been secured to the wife, and placed beyond the reach or control of the husband, could, by process of foreign attachment in this state, be made liable to pay the debt of Mr. Baby to the present plaintiff.

The court instructed the jury, that the laws of Canada, in relation to the property of the wife residing there, having been proved, were binding here, in the present case, and that, consequently, upon the evidence admitted, the indebtedness of said insurance company to Mrs. Baby could not be made liable to pay the debt of her husband to the present plaintiff. The jury thereupon, without leaving their seats, returned a verdict for the defendants.

BILLS AND NOTES.*

1. Notice of protest sent by mail directed to the town where the party resides is sufficient, although there be several post-offices in the same town, unless it appear that the holder knew that it should be directed in a different manner; or now by statute, unless the party, when affixing his signature to a bill or note, specifies thereon the post-office to which notice must be addressed.—*Downer v. Remer*, 21 Wendell, 10.

2. Where there are three consecutive endorsers to a promissory note, the release by the plaintiff of the first endorser, is a bar to an action against the second and third endorsers.—*Newcomb v. Raynor*, 21 Wendell, 108.

3. Where a bank receives and discounts negotiable paper, places the proceeds to the credit of the holder, and charges over against him and cancels other notes upon which are responsible parties, but which are over-due and lie under protest, such cancellation is equivalent to paying value at the time, and precludes all defence existing as between the original parties.—*Bank of Salina v. Babcock*, 21 Wendell, 499.

4. A guaranty of a debt in the form of an endorsement of a promissory note is obligatory upon the guarantor; and, in case of non-payment by the debtor, the guarantor is liable for the whole amount of the debt, and not merely for the sum received by him, with the interest thereof.—*Oakley v. Boorman*, 21 Wendell, 568.

* Selections from 21 and 22 Wendell's (New York) Reports.

5. An action does not lie against a notary for the omission of notice of protest to an endorser, where the holder may resort to other grounds for fixing the endorser independent of the notice, and wilfully or negligently omits to avail himself of such facts.—*Franklin v. Smith*, 21 Wendell, 724.

6. A bank receiving for collection a bill of exchange drawn here, upon a person residing in another state, is liable for any neglect of duty occurring in its collection, whether arising from the default of its officers here, its correspondents abroad, or of agents employed by such correspondents.—*S. & M. Allen v. The Merchants' Bank*, 22 Wendell, 215.

7. This liability may be varied, however, either by express contract or by implication, arising from general usage in respect to such paper; it is competent, therefore, for the bank to show an express contract, varying the terms of its liability, or, in the absence of a judicial determination upon the point, to show that by the usage and custom of the place, a bank thus receiving foreign paper is liable only for its safe transmission to some competent agent, and is not responsible for the acts or omissions of such agent, or of any subordinates employed by him.—*Ib.*

8. The inquiry, however, in such case, is not as to the opinion of merchants, however general, as to the law of the case, but as to the usage and practice in respect to such transactions, or the general understanding of merchants as to the nature of the contract evidenced by their acts, so as to enable the court to give the contract a correct interpretation.—*Ib.*

9. Where a debt was lost by the omission of a notary to give notice of the non-acceptance of a bill presented before maturity, it was held not to excuse a bank which had received the same for collection, that, by the law merchant of the place where the bill was presented, notice of non-acceptance was deemed unnecessary; but that, on the contrary, as the *lex loci contractus* governed in a case like it, it was the duty of the bank to have given the necessary instructions to its correspondents.—*Ib.*

10. The omission to give notice of non-acceptance happening through the default of a commissioned public officer, a notary does not vary the rights of the parties: *pro hac vice*, he acted merely as the agent of his employers, and not in his official capacity.—*Ib.*

ACCORD AND SATISFACTION.

1. The acceptance of the note of a third person from one of the members of a firm, endorsed by him, together with the payment of the balance of the account against the firm in cash, is an accord and satisfaction of the demand against the firm; there being no agreement that such note was received merely as collateral security.—*Frisbie v. Larned*, 21 Wendell, 450.

2. So a judgment confessed by one of the partners for the debt of the firm, is a satisfaction.—*Ib.*

ASSUMPSIT.

1. Where goods are sold to be paid for by a note or bill, payable at a future day, which is not delivered according to the terms of sale, the vendor may sue immediately for a breach of the special agreement, and recover, as damages, the whole value of the goods, allowing a rebate of interest during the stipulated credit; he cannot, however, maintain assumpsit on the common counts until the credit has expired.—*Hanna v. Mills*, 21 Wendell, 90.

2. Where goods are to be paid for in a note or bill, the vendor cannot recover on the common count for goods sold and delivered, until the credit has expired; but he may proceed immediately for a breach of the special agreement.—*Yale v. Coddington*, 21 Wendell, 175.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Works of Francis Bacon, Lord Chancellor of England. A new Edition, with the Life of the Author.* By BASIL MONTAGUE, Esq. In three volumes, royal octavo. pp. 455, 589, 584. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

The complete works of Lord Bacon, who, by the consent of most men, is admitted to have been one of the master minds of the world, as here presented to us, are of inestimable value. We confess that we have been long surprised, that our publishers have not before issued more of the works of the great standard authors of England, whose efforts belong alike to all countries and to all ages, and we are gratified to perceive that they are making up for that neglect in the great number of valuable works of this character, that have only recently begun to be published. The efforts of so distinguished a philosopher as Bacon, who, by his intellectual powers, brought order and symmetry and beauty from out of the chaos which disfigured his age, should be found in the library of every scholar, and we had almost said, of every man. His profound, all-grasping, and analytical powers, his rich stores of learning, the treasures of his imagination which scattered flowers along the broad and deep track of his argument, and his strong common sense, must cause his works to be read with equal advantage by the man of learning and the man of the world. We may affirm, indeed, that every line of his numerous essays and treatises is weighty with thought, and rich as solid gold. The form in which the volumes are issued is in every way worthy of the subject, and the enterprise of the publishers in their execution will be rewarded by the growing taste which seems to be spreading through the country for really valuable and substantial reading.

- 2.—*The Works of Lord Bolingbroke, with a Life, prepared expressly for this Edition. Containing additional information relative to his personal and public character; selected from the best authorities.* In four volumes. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

Here is another very valuable contribution to the adopted literature of the United States. The works of Lord Bolingbroke, for philosophical beauty and elegance of style, have long ranked among the classics of our language. Embracing a great variety of topics, literary and political, they evince a mind enriched with scholarly acquisitions, and in most cases clear in the perception of truth. Although some of the subjects which they discuss have passed away, yet there are many dissertations which lie at the foundation of general principles, and that will forever involve the dearest interests of man. As such, they deserve to be studied profoundly. Among the prominent characteristics of this author, is the calm and elevated tone of his productions. His "Reflections upon Exile," fall upon our ear like the gentle melody of the Æolian harp, while his "remarks on the history of England," evince a compass of knowledge and an extent of reflection which will always entitle them to admiration. As one of the rapidly increasing readers of the country, we rejoice that the volumes are issued, and we thank the publishers for presenting them to the public in this elegant form. They are prefaced by an exquisite engraving of Lord Bolingbroke, whose beautiful countenance denoted his character.

- 3.—*The Vicar of Wakefield, a Tale.* By OLIVER GOLDSMITH. 8vo. pp. 284. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

We heartily thank the publishers for presenting us with so beautiful an edition of our favorite author. The numerous engraved illustrations were executed in England, and are, of course, very beautiful. The remark of Hazlitt, "that every thing in him (Goldsmith) is spontaneous, unstudied, unaffected, yet elegant, harmonious, graceful, and nearly faultless," is worthy of all acceptance.

- 4.—*American Antiquities, and Researches into the Origin and History of the Red Race.* By ALEXANDER W. BRADFORD. 8vo. pp. 435. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

The antiquities of America have long been the subject of profound interest, which has been much increased since the recent explorations of Messrs. Stephens and Catherwood. A mystery as yet hangs over the early condition of the continent, which the investigations of the curious have not as yet cleared up. In the monuments which are scattered over its surface, from the rude barrows and fortifications upon the southern shores of Lake Erie, increasing as they do in magnitude and beauty as we advance along the Gulf of Mexico, we have the most substantial evidences of the character of the people by whom they were constructed. The present volume is designed to exhibit the nature of these remains, and to trace the analogy between them and monuments in other parts of the world. It is elaborate, well digested, and the clear expositions of the author are well fortified by marginal references. In that part of the work which treats of the red race, the conclusion of the author is that they are a primitive branch of the human family, and assimilated to the Etrurians, Egyptians, Mongols, Chinese, and Hindoos, and have derived their origin from Asia, advancing through the Indian Archipelago.

- 5.—*Autobiography, Reminiscences, and Letters of John Trumbull, from 1756 to 1841.* 8vo. pp. 439. New York and London: Wiley and Putnam. 1841.

The life of Colonel Trumbull, in its various vicissitudes, abounds with much of romantic incident. A distinguished officer in the war of the revolution, an eminent historical painter, and a polished gentleman, his course, now advanced to a green old age, has been distinguished with all those alternations of happiness and despondency that seemed to spring as much from his sensitive nature as from the variety of his fortunes. A son of one of the most respectable governors of Connecticut, of the same name, and receiving his education in Harvard, he is soon found in London, where he is arrested as a spy, and is associated with circumstances of the deepest interest, and with many of the most distinguished men of Europe. Returning, he practises his favorite art, and completes the beautiful efforts which now adorn the walls of the Capitol; and we find him, in his advanced years, giving the result of his experience to the world. The volume consists mainly of narrative, conveyed in an elegant and racy style, characteristic of the man. Its criticisms on works of art evince an extreme delicacy of taste, and the book itself is adorned with many finished crayon productions of his pencil. We doubt not that it will receive the ample commendation which its intrinsic literary merits, as well as the beautiful form of its publication, richly deserve.

- 6.—*The Four Gospels, with a Commentary.* By A. A. LIVERMORE. Vol. 1: Matthew. 12mo. pp. 346. Boston: J. Munroe. 1841.

In a field of criticism, where sectarianism has spoiled nearly every tree and flower, this new product of a generous soil deserves our notice as the nearest approach to an unsectarian work. We feel certain it will meet the wants of all who call themselves liberal Christians, as a family expositor, a reference-book in the study of the Gospel, a companion in the Sunday school, and an aid to daily devotion. It is learned, yet not dry; rational, yet not cold; fervent, yet not fanatical; tasteful, yet not one line for mere taste. Its charm is, that it wholly escapes from the tedious technicality, the wearisome disquisitions about points of no concern, the continual endeavor to explain what is perfectly plain already, which have made commentaries in general a dismal swamp to the people at large. Mr. L. is concise, practical, reasonable, full of generous and holy feeling. His first volume having met in a few months with so extensive a sale as to authorize a stereotype edition, we commend its simplicity, earnestness, purity of morals, and practical piety, to a popularity like that which has already rewarded the like labors of Mr. Barnes.

7.—*Scandinavia, Ancient and Modern; being a History of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway: comprehending a Description of these Countries; an Account of the Mythology, Government, Laws, Manners, and Institutions of the Early Inhabitants; and of the Present State of Society, Literature, Arts, and Commerce; with Illustrations of their Natural History.* By ANDREW CRICHTON, LL.D., and HENRY WHEATON, LL.D. 2 vols. 18mo. pp. 373, 403. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The history of these three kingdoms of Northern Europe is intimately connected with that of our father-land. During those barbarous ages, when war was considered the only pursuit worthy of noble minds, the coasts of England were long ravaged, and the country finally conquered by the fierce and lawless invaders from the north. This circumstance, and others connected with the history of these nations, as their supposed early discovery of America, &c., cannot fail of commending these excellent volumes to the American reader. Our countryman, Dr. Wheaton, occupied a high official station for several years at the court of Denmark; and during his residence there, engaged with much zeal in historical investigations relating to the antiquities, character, laws, &c., of the early inhabitants. His "History of the Northmen" is admitted to be one of the best on that subject. His learned coadjutor in this work is no less distinguished, as a profound scholar and able writer. The volumes are accompanied by a valuable map, and illustrated with a variety of engravings, and constitute the 136th and 137th numbers of the Family Library.

8.—*Incidents of a Whaling Voyage. To which are added, Observations on Scenery, Manners and Customs, and Missionary Stations of the Sandwich Islands: accompanied by numerous lithographic prints.* By FRANCIS ALLYN OLMSTED. 12mo. pp. 360. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1841.

It is rather unfortunate for the reputation of this work that it should have been preceded but a short time by young Dana's "Two Years before the Mast," a book of similar character, but executed in a style to which "Incidents of a Whaling Voyage" has no pretension. The similarity in the subjects of the two works, and in the character and position of the writers—both being youths fresh from college, and the sons of distinguished literary men—induces at once a comparison, which is unfavorable to the "Incidents." This, however, may be partly accounted for by the superior advantages enjoyed by the author of "Two Years before the Mast." Young Dana, for two years, led the life of a sailor; messed in the fore-castle, and was an actor in the scenes he describes. On the contrary, young Olmsted was nothing but a passenger; and could know only from description the pleasures of standing watch in a stormy night, or reefing topsails in a gale of wind, or any other of the practical details of a seaman's life. The two works afford an excellent illustration of the difference between experience and mere observation. The "Incidents" are, however, very far from being devoid of merit. Although faulty in arrangement, rather crude in style, and somewhat meager in detail, they are both amusing and instructive, and will be read with pleasure by a very numerous class. The title alone will recommend it to the great numbers of our citizens who are directly or indirectly interested in the exertions of our hardy and adventurous whalers.

9.—*The Mignonette: or, The Graces of the Mind.* 24mo. pp. 192. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

Like every thing from the Appletons, this little volume is beautifully printed on fine paper, with handsome type, and neatly bound. But that is not all; the contents are in harmony with its external beauty. In preparing it, the editor's aim appears to have been to render it subservient to the promotion of the social and devout affections; and, by admitting into it pieces distinguished not only by poetic excellence, but by incitement to virtue, render it an agreeable vehicle for conveying to the reader the purest morals and the holiest truths. It is adorned with several exquisite engravings, and enriched with intellectual gems which will be found to express "the graces of the mind."

10.—*Fragments from German Prose Writers.* Translated by SARAH AUSTIN, with biographical sketches of the authors. New York : Appleton & Co. 1841.

This book, published in Broadway but printed at the Cambridge University press, is an exquisite specimen of finished mechanical execution, and worthy of the noble thoughts it bears from the old world to the new. It is the most helter-skelter collection of fine things that can be imagined. Goëthe, Kant, Schlegel, Richter, Humboldt, and Heine, have had their finest jewels, as it were, shaken up in a hat, and drawn out as the lot fell. The only thing to regret is, that such utter disorder prevails throughout this exhibition. We have to pass without a pause from grave to gay, from lively to severe, from the wildest dreams of fancy to the soberest counsels of age. Those who think Germany the home of wild imagination, may well read the "Letter of an Old Married Woman to a Sensitive Young Lady," and admire the sententious wisdom of Franklin. Mrs. Austin has placed the English world under a fresh obligation to that graceful and faithful pen, which, more than any other, has made German literature a familiar and delightful field of meditation. Her translations are always adapted to the different styles of her different authors ; free, vigorous, and sometimes eloquent.

11.—*Theodore, or the Skeptic's Conversion, translated from the German of De Welte.* By JAMES F. CLARKE. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 311, 422. Boston : Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1841.

This is a translation ; but with none of the cramped, inverted, pedantic style which generally stamps such job-work. It has the raciness and grace of an original work, so fully has the translator caught the spirit and sympathized with the tone of one of the greatest men now upon the stage. The history of a young theologian is pursued with deepening interest through all the mazes of German philosophy, theology, taste, and love ; till the reflecting reader finds himself, with comparatively little toil, familiar with the great subjects which agitate the most philosophical people upon earth. We mean, that with wonderful impartiality this portrait of an inquisitive mind takes in the whole field of religious thought in Germany ; and presents to us a comprehensive and moderate view of the philosophical doctrines which, after a thorough handling in the country of their birth, are beginning to be talked of vaguely on this side of the Atlantic. Whoever desires fresh views of all things in heaven above and the earth beneath, set forth in eloquent conversation, and woven together by a pleasant strain of narrative, will do well to study the history of Theodore, the converted skeptic.

12.—*Historical Collections of the State of New York ; containing a Collection of the most Interesting Facts, Traditions, Biographical Sketches, Anecdotes, &c., relating to its History and Antiquities ; with Geographical Descriptions of every Township in the State. Illustrated by 230 Engravings.* By JOHN BARBER, author of "Connecticut and Massachusetts Historical Collections ;" and HENRY HOWE, author of the "Memoirs of Eminent American Mechanics." 8vo. pp. 608. New York : S. Tuttle. 1841.

The copious title-page furnishes a very good outline of the contents of this substantially executed volume. It is evidently the result of the most untiring industry and research ; indeed, we are informed in the preface, that the compilers unitedly spent more than two years of close and laborious application. They visited every part of our wide-spread territory ; and, besides travelling thousands of miles in the public conveyances, journeyed many hundreds on foot. A large portion of the numerous engravings were copied from drawings taken on the spot by one of the compilers. It is admirably adapted to popular reading ; and altogether, forms a most valuable and interesting collection of information, well calculated to impart a more particular knowledge of the "Empire State" than is elsewhere to be found. It is a monument of research and industry, that deserves the patronage of her citizens generally.

- 13.—*The Amenities of Literature.* By J. D'ISRAELI, Esq. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 405, 461. New York: J. & H. Langley.

This delightful republication of the British press has, we observe, been received with an enthusiastic welcome by our contemporaries of the press generally; and, although the well-earned reputation of the author would have almost insured this, the work itself, like all his previous productions, is so intrinsically valuable, that it must tend to increase both the importance of the series and the lasting fame of the writer. Our restricted limits prevent even an attempt at analytical criticism; and, indeed, were it otherwise, the task would assuredly be rather that of the eulogist than the censor. All that we expressed in our recent notice of the previous work by this author, "*The Miscellanies of Literature*," is strictly applicable to that now before us. To the student and scholar, as well as every person of literary taste, these writings of D'Israeli must prove of indispensable value; and we cannot but express our regret at the intimation, that the volumes before us are the last we are to expect from the same gifted and delightful pen. We refer, with pleasure, to the elegant style in which the Messrs. Langley have had the work produced.

- 14.—*Democracy.* By GEORGE SYDNEY CAMP. Vol. 138 of Harpers' Family Library. 1841.

There can be no doubt that we need to be better informed as to the principles from which our free institutions are derived, and on which they rest. We have some vague notions that our democratic government is better than any other; but how few are there who have gone back to the primary principles that make it the only right government, or have any clear and correct notions of its theory! But all this is necessary, in order that we may be able to defend our republican institutions on their true and proper grounds, and know how to value them as we ought. The treatise which has suggested these remarks, is written for this object—to furnish us with this information. The reasoning is masterly throughout, and it is a production that will be read with unmingled satisfaction by every intelligent citizen of this free country.

- 15.—*The Seaman's Friend.* By R. H. DANA, Jr., author of "*Two Years before the Mast*." 12mo. pp. 223. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. New York: Dayton & Saxton. 1841.

This useful treatise, of a very popular writer, is dedicated "to all sea-faring persons, and especially to those commencing the sea life; to owners and insurers of vessels; to judges and practitioners in maritime law; and to all persons interested in acquainting themselves with the laws, customs, and duties of seamen." Mr. Dana's education and experience, legal and nautical, eminently fitted him for the preparation of such a work; and he has, in our judgment, accomplished the undertaking in a manner well calculated to render it extremely useful to the large class of persons named in the dedication. The volume embraces a practical treatise on seamanship; the customs and usages of the merchant service; a dictionary of sea terms; and laws relating to the practical duties of master and mariners.

- 16.—*Evenings with the Chronicles, or Uncle Rupert's Tales of Chivalry.* By R. M. EVANS. pp. 184. New York: Appleton & Co. 1841.

We have seldom seen any thing from the English press prettier than this. It is an encouraging evidence of the progress of both printing and engraving among us; and a far better token of regard to another's taste than any of the common offerings of friendship with which this season abounds. We only regret that the subjects of the narrative were not better selected. We more than doubt the good taste of dealing so much in war and bloodshed: we believe that the same times would furnish abundant tales breathing the noblest moral tone, like some of Taylor's "*Records of a Good Man's Life*." Still, the book is a gem.

17.—*Lives of Eminent British Lawyers.* By HENRY ROSCOE, Esq., Barrister at Law. In two volumes. 12mo. pp. 278, 240. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. 1841.

In these two volumes we have a series of clear and concise, yet brief, biographical accounts of some of the most distinguished jurists of the bar of Great Britain. One of the best traits of the book, is the condensation of the style. While the material circumstances that marked the progress of the eminent men, whose lives are here portrayed, are preserved, the author has judiciously excluded all those topics and illustrations which might have grown out of the respective subjects, but which did not fall within his plan. His aim appears to have been to preserve, in a compressed and accurate form, the lineaments of those great men, who, in the legal profession, filled a very large space in former ages, and he has succeeded in his design. We are here presented with authentic and well-colored portraits of Sir Edward Coke, with all his harshness and vigor, of Sir Matthew Hale, with his mild consistency and learning, the savage cruelty of a Jeffreys, the classical elegance of Lord Mansfield, the well stored and polished acquisitions of Sir William Blackstone, the tiger-like power of Lord Thurlow, the elegant attainments of Sir William Jones, and the eloquence of Lord Erskine, besides the intellectual and moral features of many other lawyers scarcely less distinguished. From the plan of the work, and the mode in which it is executed, we cordially commend it as one of solid and permanent value.

18.—*Rambles and Reveries.* By HENRY T. TUCKERMAN, author of "The Italian Sketch Book," and "Isabel or Sicily." 1 vol. 12mo. pp. 436. New York: James P. Giffing. 1841.

The general character of this work is indicated by the motto on the title-page:

Duke. I would divide my days

'Twixt books and journeys.

Leo. 'Twere well. To wander and to muse at will,
Redeems our life from more than half its ill.

The author embodies in these pages the results of his acquaintance with "books and journeys." More than a third of the volume is devoted to sketches and tales, the scenes of which are chiefly laid in Italy or Sicily. Among them, notwithstanding our familiarity with southern Europe, are several novel delineations. "The Cholera in Sicily," "San Marino," "Turin," and "Modena," are papers which contain many striking anecdotes and interesting descriptions. Among the tales, those entitled "Love in a Lazzaret," and the "Thespian Syren," have been much commended. The second division of the work is occupied with "Thoughts on the Poets." These essays were so well received as they appeared from time to time in the Southern Literary Messenger, that the author was induced to collect them in this form. The third part of "Rambles and Reveries" consists of nine papers, on such quaint and pleasing themes as "Eye Language," "Art and Artists," "Pet Notions," "The Weather," &c. Altogether the volume forms an agreeable miscellany, and those who are partial to the author's fugitive writings, have now an opportunity to possess a selection from them in a more durable form.

19.—*The Sabbath School, as it should Be.* By WILLIAM A. ALCOTT. New York: Jonathan Leavitt. 12mo. pp. 1841.

In this beautifully printed volume, the author describes what he conceives to be the object of Sabbath Schools—the duties of church members relative to them—their organization and conduct—the method of Sabbath School teaching—methods of bible study—and the duties of superintendents, teachers, and ministers, in relation to them. He is in favor of teaching the natural laws of God, and answers with force and clearness the objections to these, as being secular; and he further considers the teaching of doctrines in the Sabbath School as entirely unnecessary.

20.—*The Glory and Shame of England*. By C. EDWARDS LESTER. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 253, 268. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We were much struck by the title of these volumes, and had a great curiosity to read them. We have read them; and a work more full of interest, and that of the most stirring kind, we do not remember to have seen for some time. Mr. Lester has sketched, with a masterly hand, the *Shame of England*, as exhibited in her iniquitous domestic and foreign policy, and reckless disregard of the sufferings of her subjects, pauperized, famished, and driven to despair, by her insane and most iniquitous corn laws, and her oppressive taxations of every kind. If Americans would know how to appreciate the blessings they enjoy, let them read these volumes. There is in them a great variety of other matter that is exceedingly interesting, in relation to the most distinguished political, literary, and philanthropic characters of England, her commerce, public works, &c. &c. The author's style is chaste, animated, and eloquent; and with so many things to recommend his book, it will be most extensively read.

21.—*The True Catholic Churchman, in his Life and in his Death. The Sermons and Poetical Remains of the Rev. Benjamin Davis Winslow, A. M., Assistant to the Rector of St. Mary's Church, Burlington, New Jersey. To which is prefixed the sermon preached on the Sunday after his decease. With notes and additional memoranda.* By the Rt. Rev. GEORGE WASHINGTON DOANE, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of the Diocese, and Rector of St. Mary's Church. 8vo. pp. 317. New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1841.

The work above named, as its title imports, contains the sermons, poetic efforts, and reminiscences of a consistent and pure-hearted young man, who died in the twenty-fifth year of his age, while engaged in the service of the Christian ministry. His intellectual efforts, as here preserved, indicate a contemplative mind, deeply imbued with the theology to which he was attached, and colored with a delicate and beautiful imagination, that was disciplined by a refined taste and sound judgment.

22.—*Rollo Learning to Talk—Rollo Learning to Read in Easy Stories—Rollo at Play, or Safe Amusements—Rollo at Work, &c.—Rollo at School—Rollo's Vacation—Rollo's Museum—Rollo's Travels—Rollo's Correspondence.* 9 vols. 18mo. Philadelphia: Hogan & Thompson. 1841.

This series of juvenile classics, well known to the trade, and to the juvenile public as the "Rollo Books," deserve a general notice at our hands. We prefer them to all works of the kind, even to Edgeworth and Opie. They are founded on republican society; they ground every thing upon moral obligation; they give unusually exact views of science and natural law; they correct imaginative extravagance by just ideas of life; they teach mutual respect—honor for labor and self-dependence; they employ language in its true sense; they exhibit beautifully the right relations between father and child; they inculcate practical self-government, and sustain their interest throughout without any mental excitement.

23.—*The Gem: A Christmas and New Year's Present for 1842.* Philadelphia: Published by H. F. Annors.

This work reminds one rather too sensibly of the day of small beginnings in these periodical kaleidoscopes. Nothing about the book is more than respectable; and nothing sinks much below this. Some of the pieces are reprints, very many are anonymous, and all meet the ordinary expectations of this kind of literature. Few eminent names are inscribed on its pages, and, excepting the "Wedding Day," by Mrs. Hughs, it has nothing it would grieve us to forget or gladden us to meet once more. The engravings and mechanical execution are nowise remarkable, though passably good.

24.—*The Gift: A Christmas and New Year's Present for 1842.* Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This is one of the most exquisite things ever got up in this country, and may be called a prize specimen of itself, so much does it eclipse all previous efforts. The engravings are admirable, consisting of copies of American paintings, chiefly Sully's. The first face which meets you, "The Country Girl," unlike the titled stupidities which decorate English Annuals, is of rare loveliness, and grows upon you as you study it. The humorous ones, particularly the boy on the sled, are full of life. The tales and poetry are not alone good as coming from distinguished authors; they seem, by universal consent, to have wrought them out of peculiarly happy moments, moments of rare inspiration. It is unpleasant to particularize when all are good, but Miss Leslie's "People that did not take Boarders," is alone enough to give a high character to the work: and the lamented Lucy Hooper, in singing her last note here, has not failed to sing the sweetest. No one can examine this Annual and not see that the arts have reached a great degree of perfection among us, and deserve the regard and encouragement of the public.

25.—*The Rose of Sharon: a Religious Souvenir for 1842.* Edited by Miss SARAH C. EDGARTON. 12mo. pp. 302. Boston: A. Tompkins.

This beautiful annual is, we presume, designed to represent the religious literature of the Universalists, as we notice the names of some of the most distinguished preachers of that denomination of Christians among the contributors, besides laymen and ladies attached to the same communion. It is not, however, sectarian in its character, but breathes throughout the spirit of our holy religion, inciting to virtue and virtuous deeds, which will endure when sects and sectarianism are lost in the pure catholicism of "the spirit land." The pieces will, on the whole, compare with those to be found in similar works, and where all are so respectable, it would, perhaps, be invidious to particularize. The pictorial embellishments are vastly superior to those contained in the former volumes of the same annual.

26.—*Biography and Poetical Remains of the late Margaret Miller Davidson.* By WASHINGTON IRVING. 2d Edition, 12mo. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1841.

This is one of the most fascinating books of recent publication. Its subject was no ordinary character; but one of those rarely gifted creatures, who appear once in an age, to show what impulses and aspirations belong to our common nature, as well as to teach the responsibility of education, and the influence of a pure sympathy upon the young. Margaret M. Davidson inherited from her mother, herself no common woman, a very poetical and ardent temperament, with all the susceptibilities of early genius. Nothing could be more beautiful than the intercourse between this mother and daughter, unless it be the spontaneous beauty of all the daughter's perceptions of nature and religion. The pen of Irving never had a fitter subject, and he has done it and himself immortal honor. The poetical remains are simple, but exquisitely musical and flowing. She wrote poetry because her thoughts must find expression, and could do it in no other way. And yet her poetry seems but a faint index of her uncommon genius: which under the alternations of feeble health and intense sickness, prosecuted severe studies, revelled in the natural world, and lived purely the spirit's life.

27.—*The Child's Gem for 1842.* Edited by a lady. New York: S. Colman.

The nature and objects of the present volume, which completes the second series of the Child's Gem, are sufficiently explained by the title under which it is published. It will answer the delightful purpose of making the heart cheerful, while, at the same time, it is improved. The engravings are very pretty.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

RAY'S LIFE-PRESERVING BOAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE:—

SIR:—I take a deep interest in every measure which promises increased facility to navigation and commerce; because I view them as powerful agents among the instrumentalities by which this opaque world is destined to be renovated.

I felt a special interest in the account given, in an early number of the magazine, of Francis' life-preserving boat. But I was struck with one very serious objection, viz.: its want of capacity to contain a ship's crew and a large number of passengers, with the stores and provisions necessary for a sea voyage. Nothing short of such accommodation can afford to the prudent voyager's mind any thing like perfect security from a watery grave. The principle upon which Francis' life-preserving boat is constructed, forbids all idea of its susceptibility of meeting this grand desideratum.

I, however, feel disposed to submit a project for the inspection and consideration of the commercial world, designed to supply the above defect, which I think is not only plausible, but also highly practicable; and its adoption, or something tantamount, imperiously demanded by the business and spirit of the age in which we now live.

Let the upper story of all sea-going vessels be constructed of iron, made water-proof, and independent of the balance of the vessel, but confined to it by some ten or twelve strong iron bolts, each bolt commanded by a lever, which, in case of necessity, at a moment's warning, can be jerked out, so as to free said upper story from the balance of the vessel; which upper story, being itself made sea-worthy, shall prosecute the voyage by the aid of jury-masts and rigging laid in for such event.

Let there be two iron partitions running across the aforesaid life-preserving part of the ship. This will make three large rooms; the middle portion for the stores, which should at all times be kept there in readiness; the other two rooms, one for passengers, the other for the sailors and crew. The state rooms to be constructed of thin light plank, inside of the iron hull; the hatchway openings to be closed at a moment's warning, with water-proof shutters.

The steam-engine, and all that appertains thereto, to occupy the lower portion of the ship, and not to interfere in any way with the said life-preserving portion of the vessel.

The masts and rigging present a seeming difficulty; but none so formidable but they can be overcome.

The masts can be set in strong iron sockets, which shall extend to the floor of the life-preserving portion of the ship; and a joint can be made in each mast, just above the upper deck, by which the masts can be discharged in a moment, if required. And it is evident that the masts would be too heavy for the life-preserving portion of the ship, when used separate from the balance of the vessel. All the rope attachments can be made with hooks, so constructed as to free the vessel of them at a single effort.

If it should be deemed best for the masts to extend down to the timbers in the hold, there can be no difficulty in so arranging them as to not interfere with the life-preserving rooms.

When a vessel so constructed shall founder at sea, all hands, snugly shipped in the *life-preserver*, can sail off with a fair prospect of reaching their destined haven, leaving the sinking hulk to *measure by herself* the countless fathoms of madame ocean.

As an indemnity against loss of life by burning, I would suggest that several large trap-doors can be so fixed in the ship's bottom, as to fill and sink her in one minute, if the fire cannot be otherwise extinguished, and thus save all on board from a fiery death.

If my life-preserver be deemed liable to capsize, the self-righting principle of Francis' boat can be carried out upon mine, on an enlarged scale.

Permit me to suggest, that a light steam-engine can be carried in the life-preserver, to be used, if occasion require; the force to be communicated to the water by *Smith's screw-auger propellers*, as they are called in England.

I now (as I before have done) enter the lists with Mr. Smith, and contest with him the honor of the screw-auger invention, in application to navigation, so far as theory is concerned.

In September, 1836, I filed a caveat in the patent office at Washington, describing the *screw-auger application of the force to the water*, as better than that of the paddle-wheel, for sea-going vessels.

In the spring, or summer of 1837, I published my views in a Cincinnati newspaper, and advertised for pecuniary aid to make an experiment, offering to the capitalist one half of the profits arising from the invention. But I met with poor success,—cold silence!

I can, with a clear conscience, say that I did not filch the invention from Mr. Smith, or any other person; and I wish it distinctly understood that I do not charge him with having borrowed the invention from me. For I am well aware that it is quite possible, in the nature of things, that the same invention should have been original and simultaneous *with him and myself*, without a loan or borrow in the case either side. But I have a desire that Mr. Smith should furnish the world with a certified copy of the first document, *embracing the screw-auger propellers*, filed by him in the patent office of his country. Should this article reach him, I indulge the hope that he will comply with my request.

Before I close this article, I wish to clear up one objection to my life-preserving boat, which may, and probably will, suggest itself to the reader's mind. It is a well known fact, that a vessel sinking at sea will take down with it, by its *suck* or *vortex*, small boats; but I apprehend that my life-preserving boat covers too much surface, and will be too *buoyant*, to follow the sinking vessel very far, if at all.

There is now one other remark which I would make: my life-preserver can be completely ventilated by the air-pump.

Let us now suppose a vessel plying between the ports of New York and Liverpool, having the above security for life and valuable baggage. Do you not suppose that the high estimate which we make of life would prompt such as have occasion to cross the Atlantic, to prefer a passage in her to another vessel?

Yours, very respectfully,

Clinton, Kentucky, 1841.

STEPHEN RAY.

COQUET LIGHT AND BUOYS FOR THAT ROADSTEAD, NORTHUMB- BERLAND.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON, September 3, 1841.

Notice is hereby given that in fulfilment of the intention expressed in an advertisement from this house, dated 10th ultimo, a bright fixed light of great power will be exhibited for the first time on the evening of Friday, the 1st of October next, and which will be visible seaward from N. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. to S. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W. by compass. A light of inferior power will also be shown landward in all other directions. The buoys for the anchorage within the island, referred to in the same advertisement, have now been placed in the undermentioned situations, and with the following marks and bearings, viz.:

A Red Beacon Buoy, marked "N. E. Coquet," in $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms water:

The south end of Morwick trees in line with the House on Amble

Point, bearing

W. by N.

A slate roofed House at Bondicar in line with Hauxley Point,

S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.

Coquet Light House,

S. S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

A Red and White Buoy, painted in circles, marked "N. W. Coquet," in 2 fathoms:

The southernmost of two clumps of Trees on the south land, its ap-

parent width on Bondicar Point, bearing

S. W. by W.

The west end of a long Wood in line with the east end of the Sand

Hills next west of Alemouth,

N. by W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.

- North-east Coquet Buoy, - - - - - E. N. E.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - S. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.
 A Red Buoy, marked "S. W. Coquet," in 3 fathoms:
 The east end of Shillbottle Trees, in line with the tower of Warkworth Castle, bearing - - - - - N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.
 A cluster of Trees inland, apparently midway between two houses at Bondicar, one having a red tiled, and the other a slated roof, - - - S. W.
 Hauxley Point Buoy, - - - - - S. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.
 A Black Buoy, marked "Sand Spit," in 9 feet, upon the extremity of a Reef running from the main land towards the Island:
 The west end of Warkworth Castle in line with Amble Point, - - - N. W.
 Bondicar Point in line with the southernmost of two clumps of trees to the southward, - - - - - S. W. by S.
 Hauxley Point Buoy, - - - - - S. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.
 A Black Beacon Buoy, marked "Hauxley Point," in 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms, on the extremity of this dangerous reef:
 A Farm House, having a lofty chimney on its west end, in line with the House on Amble Point, - - - - - N. N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W.
 Earsdon Windmill in line with a slate roofed House at Bondicar, - - - W. by S. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.
 A Black and White Chequered Buoy, marked "Pan Bush," in 2 fathoms, on the S. E. part of the shoal so called:
 The south part of Morwick Trees in line with the north end of Glos-ter Hill, - - - - - W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N.
 A red tiled House within the Sand Hills, its apparent width open north of Radcliffe Colliery chimney, bearing - - - - - S. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
 Coquet Light House, - - - - - S. S. E.
 North-east Coquet Buoy, - - - - - S. E. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E.

Mariners are to observe that the safest approach to this anchorage is north of the Island, between the N. E. Coquet and Pan Bush Buoys, there being but 8 feet water in the south entrance, viz.: between the S. W. Coquet and the Sand Spit Buoys.

N. B.—The above bearings are magnetic; and the depths of water those of low water spring tides.

By order,

J. HENKERT, Secretary

COMPARATIVE NAVAL FORCE OF ENGLAND, FRANCE AND AMERICA.

The following table, says the London Times, of the comparative force of England, France, and America, is not very accurate with regard to France, but may be relied on for the strength of America:

	Foreign tonnage.	Number of Merchant Vessels.	Number of Seamen.	Vessels of war of all descriptions.
England,	3,347,400	27,895	181,642	765
France,	647,000	5,991	35,000	350
United States,	2,000,000	16,666	108,000	68

Hence the mercantile interests of the United States have far less protection in proportion to their extent than those of any other maritime country. Not only is the American navy deficient in numerous and well appointed vessels, but the very materials of a navy are wanting. The arsenals are most inadequately stored; the modern improvements in naval architecture have not been introduced into the dockyards, for no ships of the line have been constructed since the war. Only three steamers have been built for the navy. Of the sixty-eight vessels mentioned in the foregoing table, thirty-six only (including, as it would seem, the revenue cutters) are in commission. Of eleven ships of the line, only one is in commission, and that is not in the American seas. The navy list contains seventeen frigates, of which five are in commission; and twenty-one sloops, of which fourteen are in commission. Such is the total deficiency of a home squadron, that the only vessel of war, above the size of a revenue cutter, which has been seen for many years in any of the great harbors, is the schooner Experiment,—a wretched craft, which could only cruise along the coast in summer weather; and sometime ago, a report having reached Philadelphia, that the packet ship Susquehannah had been captured by pirates off the capes of Delaware, the only ship which could be sent out to her relief was a revenue cutter carrying four guns.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, FOR 1840.*

The annual report from the secretary of the treasury, with the annual statement of the commerce and navigation of the United States for the year ending 30th of September, 1840, was not published until towards the close of September, 1841. This delay was occasioned by the late date at which some of the returns of imports and exports for the fourth quarter of the last statistical year were received at the treasury department, thus rendering it impossible to complete the commercial statements in season to be reported to congress before adjournment. The document occupies 326 pages octavo, embracing 17 general, summary, and condensed statements, viz:—

1.—A general statement of the quantity and value of merchandise imported. 2.—A summary statement of the same. 3.—A general statement of the quantity and value of foreign merchandise exported. 4.—A summary statement of the same. 5.—A general statement of the quantity and value of domestic produce exported. 6.—A summary statement of the same. 7.—A general statement of the quantity of American and foreign tonnage entered into the United States. 8.—A general statement of the quantity of American and foreign tonnage cleared from the United States. 9.—A statement exhibiting the aggregate number of each description of foreign vessels, with their tonnage and seamen, that entered into and cleared from the United States. 10.—A statistical view of the commerce and navigation of the United States. 11.—A statement of the number and tonnage of vessels which entered each district from foreign countries. 12.—A statement of the number and tonnage of vessels which cleared from each district for foreign countries. 13.—A statement of the commerce and navigation of each state and territory. 14.—Abstract of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States. Connected with No. 14 is a general statement, (marked A or 15) exhibiting a comparison of the tonnage of the United States, from the 30th of September, 1839, to the 30th of September, 1840. 16.—Exhibits the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each state and territory of the United States. 17.—Exhibits a comparative view of the aggregate amount of registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States, from 1815, inclusive.

The tables which follow are derived from this document, and embrace a summary and condensed view of the whole subject. It will be seen from the statements thus presented that the imports during the year have amounted to \$107,141,519; of which there was imported in American vessels \$92,802,352, and in foreign vessels \$14,339,167. The exports during the year have amounted to \$132,065,946; of which \$113,895,634 were of domestic, and \$18,190,312 of foreign articles. Of domestic articles, \$92,030,898 were exported in American vessels, and \$21,864,736 in foreign vessels. Of the foreign articles, \$13,591,359 were exported in American vessels, and \$4,598,953 in foreign vessels. 1,576,946 tons of American shipping entered, and 1,647,009 tons cleared from, the ports of the United States; 712,363 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 706,486 tons cleared, during the same period.

The registered tonnage is stated at 899,764 $\frac{1}{2}$; the enrolled and licensed tonnage at 1,176,694 $\frac{1}{2}$; and fishing vessels at 104,304 $\frac{1}{2}$; making a total of 2,180,764 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Of registered and enrolled tonnage, amounting, as before stated, to 2,076,459 $\frac{1}{2}$ —there were employed in the whale fishery 136,926 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons.

The total tonnage of shipping built in the United States during the year, was—registered, 56,121 $\frac{1}{2}$; enrolled, 62,187 $\frac{1}{2}$; making 118,309 $\frac{1}{2}$ tons.

* The commercial year of 1840 commences on the 1st day of October, 1839, and ends on the 30th day of September, 1840.

VALUE OF MERCHANDISE IMPORTED FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES INTO THE U. S., IN 1840.
A Table showing the value of merchandise imported from each country; distinguishing between that imported in foreign or American vessels, and that admitted free or paying ad valorem or specific duties.

WHENCE IMPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) IMPORTED FROM EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying duties ad val.	Do. specific duties.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.
Russia,.....	559080	623073	1390274	2572427	2393666	178761
Prussia,.....	22340	33522	3442	59304	59304
Sweden and Norway,....	2482	1767	1213664	1217913	567848	650065
Swedish West Indies,....	56452	49	1044	57545	57545
Denmark,.....	1787	2572	3142	7501	2780	4721
Danish West Indies,.....	186153	37618	745406	969177	954987	14190
Hanse Towns,.....	924493	1412184	184816	2521493	308852	2212641
Holland,.....	511672	108356	454726	1074754	713362	361392
Dutch East Indies,.....	602068	91297	124532	817897	764259	53638
Dutch West Indies,.....	255845	111	140523	396479	381018	15461
Dutch Guiana.....	6917	30849	37766	30997	6769
Belgium,.....	81553	145358	47956	274867	226425	48442
England,.....	10448133	17576245	5089755	33114133	29119626	3994507
Scotland,.....	181956	88155	255106	525217	113620	411597
Ireland,.....	48713	9730	39906	98349	6832	91517
Gibraltar,.....	10978	2679	18910	32567	32567
Malta,.....	23662	33	4776	28471	28471
Cape of Good Hope,.....	31079	1245	32324	32324
British East Indies,.....	1111681	739375	101405	1952461	1904206	48255
British West Indies,.....	849585	10702	187878	1048165	704552	343613
British Guiana,.....	10482	418	73	10973	10973
British Honduras,.....	153027	5266	60	158353	83161	75192
British American colonies,	1390948	94671	522148	2007767	1431264	576503
Australia,.....	21783	100358	122141	92308	29833
France,.....	11594376	3643589	2334911	17572876	15548775	2024101
French West Indies,.....	189633	2743	142875	335251	266905	68346
Spain,.....	1206798	36095	441772	1684665	1533240	151425
Teneriffe and oth. Canar's	92619	12	57891	150522	132063	18459
Manilla and Philippine is.	164873	89403	195975	450251	450251
Cuba,.....	3557967	220473	6057037	9835477	9233644	601833
Other Spanish W. I.....	154051	1424	1743257	1898732	1853811	44921
Portugal and Madeira,....	16809	828	514771	535408	516637	15771
Fayal and other Azores,..	8485	70	29583	38138	38138
Cape de Verd islands,....	28456	892	29348	29348
Italy and Sicily,.....	1342421	257285	207019	1806725	1589807	216918
Ionian islands and Greece	43027	5138	48165	48165
Trieste,.....	324820	16787	31758	373365	205413	167952
Turkey,.....	535711	24123	3642	563476	537637	25839
Morocco,.....	62138	62138	52138	10000
Hayti,.....	1194008	48677	10139	1252824	1208585	44239
Texas,.....	75338	3126	225383	303847	301017	2830
Mexico.....	4148379	10841	15781	4175001	3576624	598377
Gen. Repub. of America,	116349	69246	3426	189021	179495	9526
New Grenada,.....	215312	1513	557	217382	49005	168377
Venezuela,.....	1026554	290909	37703	1355166	1254165	101001
Brazil,.....	4646185	2981	278730	4927296	4052890	874406
Cisplaine Republic,.....	475853	3587	14962	494402	489130	5972
Argentine Republic,.....	288194	40	5328	293562	293562
Chili and Peru,.....	2038818	6880	9646	2055354	2055354
Republic of Ecuador,.....	23570	5115	28685	28685
China,.....	5570131	1058121	12577	6640829	6640829
Asia, generally,.....	161606	120267	2579	284452	266729	17723
Africa, generally,.....	370959	232	1346	372537	331545	40992
South Seas,.....	13602	140	20	13762	13762
Sandwich islands,.....	16293	16293	16293
Uncertain places,.....	1525	1525	1525
TOTAL,.....	57196204	26998981	22946334	107141519	92802352	14339167

FREE GOODS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table showing the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, in American and foreign vessels, free of duty, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Articles imported for the use of the United States,.....	\$10,941	\$7,058	\$17,999
Articles specially imp. for philosophical societies, &c.			
Philosophical apparatus,.....	2,671	3,175	5,846
Books, maps, and charts,.....	38,059	4,701	42,760
Statuary, busts, casts, &c.....	8,111	106	3,217
Paintings, drawings, etchings, and engravings,.....	5,955	2,565	8,520
Specimens of botany,.....	4,900	221	5,121
Anatomical preparations,.....	931	123	1,054
Antimony, regulus of,.....	11,105	274	11,379
Spelter, or zinc,.....	67,239	17,986	85,225
Burr stones, unwrought,.....	40,603	4,065	44,668
Brimstone and sulphur,.....	52,139	13,612	65,751
Bark of the cork tree,.....	6,806	2,216	9,022
Clay, unwrought,.....	2,089	4,984	7,073
Rags of any kind of cloth,.....	467,524	97,165	564,689
Undressed furs,.....	404,872	17,938	422,810
Hides and skins, undressed,.....	2,567,777	188,437	2,756,214
Plaster of Paris,.....	16,963	118,999	135,956
Barilla,.....	92,383	19,224	111,607
Wood, dye,.....	416,309	60,001	476,810
Unmanufactured mahogany, and other,.....	258,743	48,902	307,645
Animals for breed,.....	18,654	8,118	26,772
All other,.....	142,438	3,073	145,511
Pewter, old,.....	168		168
Tin, in pigs and bars,.....	187,180	13,035	200,215
In plates and sheets,.....	850,984	28,094	879,078
Brass, in pigs and bars,.....		73	73
Old,.....	1,516	86	1,602
Copper, in pigs and bars,.....	1,100,614	50	1,100,664
In sheets, suited to the sheathing of ships,.....	285,923	125,644	411,567
Old, fit only to be remanufactured,.....	49,773	20,632	70,405
Bullion—gold,.....	252,441	20,686	273,127
Silver,.....	469,371	63	469,434
Specie—gold,.....	1,957,598	854,432	2,812,030
Silver,.....	4,310,826	1,017,396	5,328,222
Teas, from India, China, &c.....	5,414,758	2,831	5,417,589
Coffee,.....	7,221,176	1,325,046	8,546,222
Cocoa,.....	150,992	10,397	161,389
Fruits—almonds, currants, prunes, figs, raisins, &c.....	1,074,530	146,138	1,220,668
All other,.....	175,847	8,374	184,221
Spices—mace, nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, pepper, &c.	751,062	107,897	558,939
Camphor,.....	62,294	262	62,556
Silks—lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.....	172,380	137,478	309,858
Other manufactures of.....	7,349,421	629,679	7,979,100
Silk and worsted, manufactures of,.....	1,534,430	195,362	1,729,792
Camlets of goat's hair,.....	5,976	1,264	7,240
Worsted stuff goods,.....	2,084,475	302,863	2,387,338
Linens, bleached and unbleached,.....	3,888,572	290,548	4,179,120
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps,.....	185,881	143,173	329,054
Sheeting, brown and white,.....	230,475	30,698	261,173
Bolting cloth,.....	73,478	1,056	74,534
Wool, not exceeding eight cents per pound,.....	627,767	47,242	675,009
Quicksilver,.....	34,682	19,733	54,415
Opium,.....	38,503	2,371	40,874
Crude saltpetre,.....	366,263		366,263
All other articles,.....	4,814,886	1,034,230	5,849,116
TOTAL,.....	50,056,454	7,139,750	57,196,204

MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, IMPORTED IN 1840.

A Statement of the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, paying duties ad valorem, in American and foreign vessels, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Manufactures of wool—			
Cloths and cassimeres,.....	\$4,338,788	\$357,741	\$4,696,529
Merino shawls,.....	119,156	7,453	126,609
Blankets, not above seventy-five cents each,.....	226,081	13,676	239,757
Above seventy-five cents each,.....	242,969	87,691	330,660
Hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,.....	412,413	94,039	506,452
Other manufactures of wool,.....	214,116	7,769	221,885
Woollen yarn,.....	402	405	807
Worsted yarn,.....	88,249	15,682	103,931
Manufactures of cotton—			
Dyed, printed, or colored,.....	3,427,149	466,545	3,893,694
White,.....	843,462	73,639	917,101
Twist, yarn, and thread,.....	379,113	7,982	387,095
Hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,.....	293,413	498,665	792,078
Nankeens, direct from China,.....	1,100	2	1,102
Other manufactures of cotton,.....	398,544	114,870	513,414
Manufactures of silks from India, China, &c.			
Piece goods,.....	903,597	59,844	963,441
Sewing silk,.....	23,089	23,089
Other manufactures of silk,.....	225	225
Silk, sewing, from other places,.....	236,120	15,155	251,275
Lace, thread, and cotton,.....	237,445	230,980	468,425
Flaxen goods—linens, dyed and colored, checks, &c... ..	89,863	23,799	113,662
Other manufactures of flax,.....	305,664	16,020	321,684
Hempen goods—sail duck,.....	562,646	53,077	615,723
Other manufactures of hemp,.....	58,181	13,813	71,994
Hats and bonnets—			
Leghorn, chip, straw, or grass flats, &c.....	404,738	33,262	438,000
Fur, wool, and leather,.....	6,801	628	7,429
Manufactures of iron and steel—			
Sidearms,.....	14,560	1,636	16,196
Firearms, not specified,.....	97,873	20,716	118,589
Drawing knives,.....	6,242	28	6,270
Cutting knives,.....	6,297	1,007	7,304
Hatchets, axes, and adzes,.....	4,949	966	5,915
Socket chisels,.....	9,893	45	9,938
Steelyards and scalebeams,.....	6,791	257	7,048
Vices,.....	7,904	516	8,420
Sickles and reaping hooks,.....	5,643	5,643
Scythes,.....	29,095	7,800	36,895
Spades and shovels,.....	12,584	1,069	13,673
Squares of iron or steel,.....	2,905	136	3,041
Wood screws,.....	130,996	990	131,986
Other articles,.....	2,035,206	169,105	2,204,311
Manufactures of—			
Copper,.....	54,089	6,349	60,438
Brass,.....	196,412	51,267	247,679
Tin,.....	26,084	2,690	28,774
Pewter,.....	23,489	1,142	24,631
Lead,.....	901	901
Wood—cabinet ware,.....	44,294	41,981	86,275
Other manufactures of,.....	103,131	45,346	148,477
Leather,.....	442,689	30,402	473,091
Marble,.....	16,300	2,987	19,287
Gold and silver, precious stones, set or otherwise,...	122,668	78,922	201,590
Watches, and parts of,.....	350,523	70,436	420,959

MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Manufactures of glass-ware—cut and not specified,.....	\$41,430	\$22,185	\$63,625
Plain and other,	60,341	66,986	127,327
Other manufactures of glass not specified,	62,570	107,325	169,895
Wares—China and porcelain,.....	174,948	12,868	187,816
Earthen and stone,.....	1,704,870	117,545	1,822,415
Plated, not specified,	80,549	23,350	103,899
Gilt,.....	18,029	5,467	23,496
Japanned,.....	38,150	527	38,677
Saddlery—common tinned and japanned,.....	83,586	324	83,910
Plated, brass, and polished steel,.....	114,369	2,721	117,090
Coach and harness furniture,.....	4,764	4,764
Carriages, and parts of,	3,643	250	3,893
Slates of all kinds,.....	53,561	17,183	70,744
Quills prepared,.....	17,178	4,239	21,417
Black lead pencils,.....	2,398	1,401	3,799
Paper hangings,.....	74,069	2,452	76,521
Hair cloth and hair seating,.....	40,370	19,185	59,555
Brushes of all kinds,.....	32,626	6,136	38,762
Copper bottoms, cut round and turned on the edge,....	8,659	150	8,809
Silvered or plated wire,.....	1,899	1,188	3,087
Raw silk,.....	179,557	54,678	234,235
Indigo,.....	1,099,198	22,503	1,121,701
Wool manufactured, exceeding eight cents per lb.....	132,566	38,501	171,067
Articles not enumerated, at 5 per cent.....	68,178	8,546	76,724
Do. do. 10 do. 	1,013	168	1,181
Do. do. 12 do. 	2,490	358	2,848
Do. do. 12½ do. 	173,840	57,620	231,460
Do. do. 15 do. 	791,273	183,048	974,321
Do. do. 20 do. 	268	93	361
Do. do. 25 do. 	467,419	106,097	573,516
Do. do. 30 do. 	20,678	13,535	34,213
Do. do. 35 do. 	2,144	10	2,154
Do. do. 40 do. 	663	663
Do. do. 50 do. 	197,808	53,836	251,644
TOTAL,.....	23,319,946	3,679,035	26,998,981

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Statement of the value of goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, paying specific duties, in American and foreign vessels, in 1840.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Flannels,.....	\$55,692	\$11,998	\$67,690
Bockings and baizes,.....	50,699	326	51,025
Carpeting—Brussels, Wilton, and treble ingrained,.....	238,612	7,456	246,068
Other ingrained and Venetian,.....	92,124	309	92,433
Floor-cloth, patent, printed, or painted,.....	13,388	6,506	19,894
Oil-cloth furniture,.....	2,262	11,492	13,754
Cotton bagging,.....	124,136	186,075	310,211
Wines—Madeira,.....	349,694	1,744	351,438
Sherry,.....	136,890	2,112	139,002
Red, of France,.....	159,077	280,722	439,799
Other, of France,.....	41,108	72,986	114,094
French, in bottles,.....	379,492	120,431	499,923
Sicily,.....	103,032	13,097	116,129
Red, of Spain and Austria,.....	16,294	21,128	37,422

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE
Wines—other, of Spain, Austria, and Mediterranean,...	\$230,069	\$15,369	\$245,438
Of other countries, in casks,.....	217,604	11,658	229,262
Of other countries, in bottles,.....	23,507	13,162	36,669
Spirits from grain,.....	260,746	159,323	420,069
other materials,.....	719,181	453,314	1,172,495
Molasses,.....	2 904,251	6,540	2,910,791
Vinegar,.....	5,574	9,040	14,614
Beer, ale, and porter, in casks,.....	6,739	5,305	12,044
in bottles,.....	92,549	30,892	123,441
Oil—Foreign fishing—spermaceti,.....	13,837	13,837
whale and other fish,.....	14,165	31	14,196
Olive.....	77,626	8,286	85,912
Castor.....	2,980	6	2,986
Linseed,.....	93,854	79,976	173,830
Rapeseed,.....	87	87
Teas from other places than China.....	9,399	22	9,421
Chocolate,.....	806	488	1,294
Sugar—brown,.....	4,653,030	89,462	4,742,492
White, clayed or powdered.....	822,817	15,641	838,458
Loaf,.....	58	4	62
Candy,.....	45	5	50
Other, refined,.....	18	45	63
Syrup of sugar cane.....	3	3
Cayenne pepper,.....	1	1
Candles—wax and spermaceti,.....	174	152	326
Tallow,.....	8,649	25	8,674
Cheese,.....	12,317	10,912	23,229
Soap,.....	7,582	6,277	13,859
Tallow,.....	48,784	1,761	50,545
Lard,.....	7	7
Beef and pork,.....	5,709	6,723	12,432
Bacon,.....	2,215	11,872	14,087
Butter,.....	2,564	1,199	3,763
Saltpetre.....	22,588	1,584	24,172
Vitriol—oil of,.....	706	41	747
Salts—Epsom,.....	29	15	44
Glauber,.....	97	1	98
Tobacco, manufactured—snuff,.....	185	26	211
Cigars,.....	828,562	40,872	869,434
Other than snuff and cigars,.....	18	170	188
Cotton,.....	233,583	2,594	236,177
Gunpowder,.....	1,200	3,321	4,521
Bristles,.....	85,778	8,547	94,325
Glue,.....	1,085	54	1,139
Ochre—dry,.....	19,196	15,244	34,440
In oil,.....	3,086	313	3,399
Lead, red and white,.....	28,423	12,620	41,043
Whiting and Paris white,.....	131	886	1,017
Litharge,.....	373	5	378
Sugar of lead,.....	7,541	3,844	11,385
Lead—pig, bar, and sheet,.....	18,035	76	18,111
Shot,.....	145	19	164
Pipes,.....	44	44
Old and scrap,.....	999	137	1,136
Cordage—cables and tarred,.....	89,472	32	89,504
Untarred and yarn,.....	12,398	1,036	13,434
Twine, packthread, &c.....	29,638	12,335	141,973
Corks,.....	35,161	21,025	56,186

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Copper—rods and bolts,.....	\$571	\$500	\$1,071
Nails and spikes,.....	361	361
Fire arms—muskets,.....	32,948	1,252	34,200
Rifles,.....	892	84	976
Wire—cap or bonnet,.....	2,239	23	2,262
Iron and steel wire—not above No. 14.....	9,880	5	9,885
Above No. 14.....	5,811	5,811
Iron—tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exc'ding 16 oz. per M.	678	30	708
Exceeding 16 oz. per M.	166	166
Nails.....	61,915	562	62,477
Spikes.....	5,032	5,032
Cables and chains, or parts thereof,.....	75,512	14,131	89,643
Mill saws,.....	1,614	260	1,874
Anchors.....	7,013	1,863	8,876
Anvils.....	22,845	358	23,203
Blacksmith's hammers and sledges,.....	1,720	202	1,922
Castings—vessels of,.....	11,074	3,598	14,672
All other.....	84,874	15,950	100,824
Round, as brazier's rods, of 3-16 to 8-16 inch diam'r,	46,269	1,513	47,782
Nail or spike rods,.....	24	24
Sheet and hot p,.....	234,875	934	235,809
Band iron, scroll iron, or casement rods, slit or ham'd,	339	624	963
In pigs,.....	83,303	31,259	114,562
Old and scrap,.....	11,120	4,629	15,749
Bar—manufactured by rolling,.....	1,534,386	173,263	1,707,649
manufactured otherwise,.....	1,024,986	664,845	1,689,831
Steel,.....	459,040	69,676	528,716
Hemp,.....	602,057	84,720	686,777
Alum,.....	7	2	9
Copperas,.....	73	73
Wheat Flour,.....	124	306	430
Salt,.....	779,099	236,327	1,015,426
Coal,.....	287,694	99,544	387,238
Wheat,.....	602	37	639
Oats,.....	693	144	837
Potatoes,.....	6,084	10,606	16,690
Paper—folio and quarto post,.....	13,682	1,427	15,109
Foolscap, drawing, and writing,.....	39,001	1,619	40,620
Printing, copper-plate, and stainers'.....	436	436
Sheathing, binders', wrapping, and box boards,	668	203	871
All other,.....	11,683	1,550	13,233
Books—printed previous to 1775,.....	5,582	273	5,855
Printed in other languages than English, Latin,
and Greek,.....	53,329	23,826	77,155
Printed in Greek and Latin—bound,.....	1,664	660	2,324
unbound,.....	1,535	553	2,088
All other—bound,.....	30,195	7,397	37,592
unbound,.....	70,449	15,301	85,750
Apothecaries' vials and bottles, not exceeding the ca-
pacity of 6 oz. each,.....	496	63	559
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 16 oz. each,	245	121	366
Perfumery and fancy vials and bottles, not exceeding
the capacity of 4 oz. each,.....	368	522	890
Exceeding 4 but not exceeding 16 oz. each,	300	381	681
Demijohns,.....	12,083	12,989	25,072
Glass bottles, black, not above 1 quart,.....	67,151	49,725	116,876
Exceeding one quart,.....	1,392	1,392
Window glass, not exceeding 8 inches by 10,.....	2,647	4,064	6,711

MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.	TOTAL VALUE.
Window glass, exceeding 8 by 10, and not exceeding 10 by 12 inches,.....	\$5,212	\$5,065	\$10,277
Exceeding 10 by 12 inches,.....	18,747	21,011	39,758
Fish, dried or smoked,.....	5,782	13,573	19,355
Salmon,.....	34,048	44,184	78,232
Mackerel,.....	60,936	53,654	114,590
All other,.....	19,463	29,516	48,979
Shoes and slippers, silk,.....	1,826	32	1,858
Prunella, nankeen, &c. &c.....	152	116	268
Leather, kid, and morocco, &c.....	25,339	7,038	32,377
Children's,.....	326	263	589
Boots and booties,.....	28,494	7,947	36,441
Playing cards,.....	4	1	5
Felts or hat bodies,.....	269	269
TOTAL,.....	19,425,952	3,520,382	22,946,334

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE REPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table, showing the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, in 1840.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) EXPORTED TO EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying Duties ad val.	Paying Specific Duties.	Total.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.
Russia,.....	\$111,524	\$32,715	\$790,386	\$934,625	\$934,519	\$106
Prussia,.....	42,375	740	43,115	43,115
Sweden and Norway,...	34,581	4,000	76,553	115,134	7,031	108,103
Swedish West Indies,...	619	410	2,587	3,610	3,610
Denmark,.....	14,932	2,936	17,868	17,868
Danish West Indies,....	88,831	61,442	30,245	180,518	180,228	290
Holland,.....	423,530	37,001	50,515	511,046	396,644	114,402
Dutch East Indies,.....	184,216	1,904	16,432	202,552	194,175	8,377
Dutch West Indies,.....	32,742	5,843	4,331	42,916	40,602	2,314
Hanse Towns, &c.....	646,697	80,840	102,959	830,496	162,495	668,001
Belgium,.....	322,339	8,812	155,275	486,426	353,296	133,130
England,.....	3,948,655	968,762	239,465	5,096,882	2,735,004	2,361,878
Scotland,.....	530	19,270	8,504	28,304	11,234	17,070
Gibraltar,.....	173,569	51,121	32,420	257,110	253,660	3,450
Malta,.....	29,381	16,005	45,386	45,386
British East Indies,.....	347,209	75	4,507	351,791	351,791
Mauritius,.....	153	153	153
Cape of Good Hope,....	197	197	197
British West Indies,....	19,065	10,892	28,043	58,000	21,017	36,983
Brit. N. Amer. colonies,	98,747	11,100	94,188	204,035	67,492	136,543
Honduras,.....	19,242	36,308	2,821	58,371	43,159	15,212
British Guiana,.....	18	520	538	538
Australia,.....	5,516	506	6,022	3,939	2,083
French Atlantic ports,...	2,537,766	98,840	61,419	2,698,025	2,156,031	541,994
French Mediterr. ports,	178,905	2,470	42,827	224,202	83,432	140,770
French West Indies,....	12,401	6,550	11,705	30,656	25,098	5,558
French Guiana,.....	100	100	100
Spanish Atlantic ports,.	3,296	2,543	5,839	4,649	1,190
Spanish Mediterr. ports,	1,370	1,665	3,035	3,035
Cuba,.....	524,653	350,966	103,425	979,044	972,555	6,489
Other Spanish W. I....	27,313	185	1,710	29,208	28,431	777

VALUE OF FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	VALUE (IN DOLLARS) EXPORTED TO EACH COUNTRY.					
	Free of Duty.	Paying Duties ad val.	Paying Specific Duties.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In for'gn vessels.
Teneriffe & oth. Canar's	\$9,672	\$1,175	\$732	\$11,579	\$11,579
Manilla & Philippine is.	30,000	927	30,927	30,927
Porugal,.....	5,724	5,724	5,724
Madeira,.....	22,332	466	22,858	22,858
Cape de Verds,.....	463	2,346	2,809	2,582	\$227
Fayal and other Azores,	2,720	216	2,687	5,623	5,623
Italy,.....	163,525	4,954	114,868	293,347	267,760	15,587
Sicily,.....	20,921	13,002	33,923	33,923
Trieste, & oth. Austrian
Adriatic ports,.....	135,814	7,865	52,585	196,264	174,271	21,993
Turkey, Levant, & Eg'	151,446	1,012	4,415	156,873	156,873
Hayti,.....	53,371	23,921	4,557	81,849	67,327	14,522
Texas,.....	65,854	141,182	74,163	281,199	277,128	4,071
Mexico.....	573,417	862,117	109,869	1,545,403	1,463,833	81,570
C'l. Repub. of America,	35,312	38,380	13,593	87,285	87,285
New Grenada,.....	41,302	29,242	6,785	77,329	15,897	61,432
Venezuela,.....	134,902	76,929	17,774	229,605	222,387	7,218
Brazil,.....	203,105	106,298	51,308	360,711	360,711
Argentine Republic,....	61,234	15,129	12,769	89,132	89,132
Cisplatine Republic,....	44,987	14,818	7,793	67,628	67,628
Chili,.....	120,192	144,003	92,380	356,575	356,575
China,.....	500,030	6,109	34,641	540,780	540,780
Asia, generally,.....	128,960	613	8,519	138,092	138,092
Africa, generally,.....	7,432	26,921	8,605	43,048	33,374	9,674
South Seas and Pacific,	23,547	26,294	15,359	65,200	65,200
West Indies, generally,	2,289	225	2,514	2,501	13
S. America, generally,...	15,776	12,515	28,291	28,291
N. W. Coast of Ame'ca,	540	540	540
TOTAL,.....	12,384,503	3,271,798	2,534,081	18,190,312	13,591,359	4,598,953
Entitled to drawback,...	2,875,255	2,299,487	5,174,742	3,906,261	1,268,481
Not entitled to drawb'k,	12,384,503	396,473	234,594	13,015,570	9,685,098	3,330,472

FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A summary statement of the quantity and value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of foreign countries, exported from the United States, in 1840.

I.—FREE OF DUTY.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	Quantity.	Value.
Brimstone and sulphur,.....	\$464
Bark of the cork tree,....	2,000
Rags of any kind of cloth,.....	210
Undressed furs of all kinds,.....	53,962
Hides, raw,.....	406,234
Barilla,.....	2,431
Wood, dye,.....	564,707
Unmanufactured mahogany and other,.....	64,176
Animals, other than for breed,.....	200
Tin, in pigs and bars,.....	16,168
In plates and sheets,.....	15,236
Copper, in pigs and bars,.....	32,390
In plates suited to the sheathing of ships,.....	37,652
Old, fit only to be remanufactured,.....	7,952

ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY, ETC.—Continued.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE.	Quantity.	Value.
Bullion, silver,.....		\$47,689
Specie, gold,.....		1,468,300
Silver,.....		4,665,952
Teas, originally imported from China,.....pounds	3,120,692	1,358,044
Coffee,.....do.	8,698,334	930,398
Cocoa,.....do.	1,613,202	146,901
Fruits, almonds,.....do.	87,333	13,236
Currants,.....do.	19,495	2,466
Prunes,.....do.	23,747	2,585
Figs,.....do.	85,521	2,910
Raisins, Muscatel,.....do.	630,728	47,283
Other,.....do.	87,204	3,641
Spices, mace,.....do.	2,892	3,337
Nutmegs,.....do.	2,528	2,398
Cinnamon,.....do.	14,703	19,835
Cloves,.....do.	43,589	9,834
Black pepper,.....do.	2,869,540	216,430
Pimento,.....do.	1,096,719	57,348
Cassia,.....do.	142,063	17,842
Ginger,.....do.	5,874	401
Camphor,.....do.	38,918	39,490
Silks, other than India—lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.....		25,550
Other manufactures of,.....		292,270
Manufactures of silk and worsted,.....		
Camlets of goats' or camels' hair,.....		24,994
Worsted stuff goods,.....		54,134
Linens, bleached and unbleached,.....		351,685
Ticklenburge, oenaburge, and burlaps,.....		22,633
Sheeting, brown and white,.....		139,366
Bolting cloth,.....		3,050
Quicksilver,.....		10,902
Opium,.....		12,658
Crude saltpetre,.....		14,040
All other articles,.....		1,172,919
TOTAL DOLLARS,.....		12,384,503

The whole of the above amount is of course stated as not entitled to drawback.

II.—FOREIGN MERCHANDISE PAYING DUTIES AD VALOREM, EXPORTED IN 1840.

Of the merchandise paying duties ad valorem, we find the value stated in the tables at \$3,271,728; out of which the amount of \$2,875,255 was entitled to drawback, and \$396,473 is the amount not entitled to drawback.

III.—FOREIGN MERCHANDISE PAYING SPECIFIC DUTIES, EXPORTED IN 1840.

Of the merchandise paying specific duties, we find the total value stated at \$2,531,081; out of which the amount of \$2,298,653 is declared entitled to drawback, while that of \$235,428 is not entitled to drawback.

RECAPITULATION OF THE FOREIGN MERCHANDISE EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

	Entitled to Drawback.	Not entitled to Drawback.	Total Value.
Total value of mer'dise paying specific duties,.....	\$2,298,653	\$235,428	\$2,534,081
" " paying ad valor. duties,.....	2,875,255	396,473	3,271,728
" " free of duty,.....		12,384,503	12,384,503
Total value of foreign merchandise,.....	5,173,908	13,016,404	18,190,312

DOMESTIC EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

A Table, showing the total value of goods, wares, etc., of the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported to each country in 1840, in American and foreign vessels.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	In American vessels.	In Foreign vessels.	Total Value to each Country.
Russia and Prussia,.....	\$241,146	\$37,063	\$278,209
Sweden and Norway,.....	100,321	334,771	435,092
Swedish West Indies,.....	94,836	3,874	98,710
Denmark,	34,590	41,593	76,183
Danish West Indies,.....	892,337	26,594	918,931
Holland,.....	2,544,481	800,783	3,345,264
Dutch East Indies,.....	126,583	6,168	132,751
Dutch West Indies,.....	232,737	26,701	259,438
Dutch Guiana,.....	52,118	52,118
Belgium,.....	1,414,065	420,164	1,834,229
Hanse Towns,.....	980,430	2,387,533	3,367,963
England,.....	41,904,969	10,046,809	51,951,778
Scotland,.....	1,108,977	913,659	2,022,636
Ireland,.....	217,762	217,762
Gibraltar and Malta,.....	609,917	48,037	657,954
British Guiana,.....	111,839	7,057	118,896
British East Indies,.....	280,404	280,404
British West Indies,.....	2,531,067	376,517	2,907,584
Cape of Good Hope,.....	27,372	8,444	35,816
Mauritius,.....	8,319	8,319
Australia,.....	51,199	33,648	84,847
British American colonies,.....	4,124,157	1,771,809	5,895,966
Honduras,.....	100,974	31,121	132,095
France on the Atlantic,.....	15,857,582	1,876,161	17,733,743
France on the Mediterranean,.....	979,414	199,419	1,178,833
French West Indies,.....	454,120	29,475	483,595
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	110,722	27,113	137,835
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	106,147	109,437	215,584
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	11,816	11,816
Manilla, and the Philippine islands,.....	90,589	90,589
Cuba, and other Spanish West Indies,.....	5,357,407	744,484	6,101,891
Portugal and Madeira,.....	191,150	191,160
Fayal, and other Azores,	10,471	10,471
Cape de Verd islands,.....	81,926	685	82,611
Italy and Sicily,	785,932	707,123	1,493,055
Trieste, and other Austrian ports on the Adriatic,...	1,170,769	419,587	1,590,356
Turkey, Levant, &c.....	119,745	119,745
China,.....	469,186	469,186
Hayti,.....	875,416	69,949	945,365
Texas,	914,445	22,627	937,072
Mexico,	908,666	61,272	969,938
Central Republic of America,.....	130,661	130,661
Venezuela and Brazil,.....	2,636,157	63,973	2,700,130
Cisplatine Republic and Chili,.....	1,454,356	1,454,356
Argentine Republic and New Granada,.....	302,507	35,559	338,066
West Indies, generally,.....	305,589	71,126	376,715
South America, generally,.....	96,042	96,042
Europe, generally,.....	43,968	20,008	63,976
Asia, generally,.....	170,734	170,734
Africa, generally,.....	435,141	76,074	511,215
South Seas,	177,229	177,229
Northwest Coast of America,.....	720	720
TOTAL,.....	92,030,898	21,864,736	113,895,634

DOMESTIC EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

Summary statement of the value of the exports of the growth, products, and manufacture of the United States, in 1840.

THE SEA.			
Fisheries—			
Dried fish, or cod fisheries,.....		\$541,058	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries, (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel,).....		179,106	
Whale and other fish oil,.....		1,404,984	
Spermaceti oil,.....		430,490	
Whalebone,.....		210,379	
Spermaceti candles,.....		332,353	
			\$2,198,370
THE FOREST.			
Skins and furs,.....		1,237,789	
Ginseng,.....		22,728	
Products of wood—			
Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber,.....	\$1,801,049		
Other lumber,.....	270,933		
Masts and spars,.....	29,049		
Oak bark, and other dye,.....	229,510		
All manufactures of wood,.....	596,305		
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine,....	602,529		
Ashes, pot and pearl,.....	533,193		
		4,062,568	
			5,323,086
AGRICULTURE.			
Product of animals—			
Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle,.....	623,373		
Butter and cheese,.....	210,749		
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, live hogs,.....	1,894,894		
Horses and mares,.....	246,320		
Sheep,.....	30,698		
Vegetable food—			
Wheat,.....	1,635,483		
Flour,.....	10,143,615		
Indian corn,.....	338,333		
Indian meal,.....	705,183		
Rye meal,.....	170,931	:	
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse,.....	113,393		
Biscuit, or shipbread,.....	428,988		
Potatoes,.....	54,524		
Apples,.....	54,131		
Rice,.....	1,942,076		
		15,587,657	
			18,593,691
Tobacco,.....			9,883,957
Cotton,.....			63,870,307
All other agricultural products—			
Flaxseed,.....		120,000	
Hops,.....		11,235	
Brown sugar,.....		45,940	
Indigo,.....		209	
			177,384
MANUFACTURES.			
Soap, and tallow candles,.....		451,995	
Leather, boots and shoes,.....		214,360	
Household furniture,.....		295,844	

DOMESTIC EXPORTS, ETC.—Continued.

Coaches and other carriages,.....		\$74,416	
Hats,.....		103,398	
Saddlery,.....		59,517	
Wax,.....		59,685	
Spirits from grain, beer, ale, and porter,.....		128,330	
Snuff and tobacco,.....		813,671	
Lead,.....		39,687	
Lined oil, and spirits of turpentine,.....		63,348	
Cordage,.....		43,510	
Iron—pig, bar, and nails,.....		147,397	
Castings,.....		115,664	
All manufactures of,.....		841,394	
Spirits from molasses,.....		283,707	
Sugar, refined,.....		1,214,658	
Chocolate,.....		2,048	
Gunpowder,.....		117,347	
Copper and brass,.....		86,954	
Medicinal drugs,.....		122,387	
			\$5,279,317
Cotton piece goods—			
Printed and colored,.....	\$298,977		
White,.....	2,925,257		
Nankeens,.....	1,200		
Twist, yarn, and thread,.....	81,445		
All other manufactures of,.....	192,728		
		3,549,607	
Flax and hemp—			
Cloth and thread,.....		7,114	
Bags and all manufactures of,.....		1,128	
Wearing apparel,.....		152,055	
Combs and buttons,.....		40,299	
Brushes,.....		12,263	
Billiard tables and apparatus,.....		2,471	
Umbrellas and parasols,.....		9,654	
Leather and morocco skins not sold per pound,.....		19,557	
Printing presses and type,.....		17,105	
Fire engines and apparatus,.....		6,317	
Musical instruments,.....		12,199	
Books and maps,.....		29,632	
Paper and stationery,.....		76,957	
Paints and varnish,.....		34,631	
Vinegar,.....		6,401	
Earthen and stone ware,.....		10,959	
Manufactures of glass,.....		56,688	
Tin,.....		7,501	
Pewter and lead,.....		15,296	
Marble and stone,.....		35,794	
Gold and silver, and gold leaf,.....		1,965	
Gold and silver coin,.....		2,235,073	
Artificial flowers and jewelry,.....		9,479	
Molasses,.....		9,775	
Trunks,.....		6,607	
Brick and lime,.....		16,949	
Domestic salt,.....		42,246	
			6,425,722
Articles not enumerated—			
Manufactured,.....		403,496	
Other articles,.....		740,305	
			1,143,801
			113,895,634

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

Statistical view of the commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of imports from, and exports to, each country in 1840.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.
Russia,.....	\$2,572,427	\$234,856	\$934,625	\$1,169,481
Prussia,.....	59,304	43,353	43,115	86,468
Sweden and Norway,.....	1,217,913	435,092	115,134	550,226
Swedish West Indies,.....	57,545	98,710	3,610	102,320
Denmark,.....	7,501	76,183	17,868	94,051
Danish West Indies,.....	969,177	918,931	180,518	1,099,449
Hanse Towns,.....	2,521,493	3,367,963	830,496	4,198,459
Holland,.....	1,074,754	3,245,264	511,046	3,856,310
Dutch East Indies,.....	817,897	132,751	202,552	335,303
Dutch West Indies,.....	396,479	259,438	42,916	302,354
Dutch Guiana,.....	37,766	52,118	52,118
Belgium,.....	274,867	1,834,229	486,426	2,320,655
England,.....	33,114,133	51,951,778	5,096,882	57,048,660
Scotland,.....	525,217	2,022,636	28,304	2,050,940
Ireland,.....	98,249	217,762	217,762
Gibraltar,.....	32,567	643,344	257,110	900,454
Malta,.....	28,471	14,610	45,386	59,996
Mauritius,.....	8,319	152	8,472
Cape of Good Hope,.....	32,324	35,816	197	36,013
British East Indies,.....	1,952,461	280,404	351,791	632,195
British West Indies,.....	1,048,165	2,907,584	58,000	2,965,584
British Honduras,.....	158,353	132,095	58,371	190,468
British Guiana,.....	10,973	118,896	528	119,434
British American colonies,.....	2,007,767	5,889,215	204,035	6,092,250
Australia,.....	122,141	84,847	6,022	90,869
British African ports,.....
France,.....	17,572,876	18,919,327	2,922,227	21,841,554
French West Indies,.....	335,251	483,595	30,656	514,251
French Guiana,.....	100	100
Bourbon,.....
Hayti,.....	1,262,824	945,365	81,849	1,027,214
Spain,.....	1,684,665	352,419	8,874	362,293
Teneriffe and other Canaries,.....	150,522	11,816	11,579	23,395
Manilla and Philippine islands,.....	450,251	90,589	30,927	121,516
Cuba,.....	9,835,477	5,321,471	979,044	6,340,515
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	1,898,732	770,420	29,208	799,628
Portugal,.....	222,884	97,341	5,724	103,065
Madeira,.....	309,524	93,819	22,858	116,677
Fayal and the other Azores,.....	38,138	10,471	5,623	16,094
Cape de Verd islands,.....	29,248	82,611	2,809	85,430
Italy,.....	1,157,200	1,189,838	283,347	1,473,185
Sicily,.....	649,525	303,217	33,922	337,140
Ionian islands,.....	43,027
Greece,.....	5,138
Trieste,.....	373,265	1,590,356	196,264	1,786,620
Turkey,.....	563,476	119,745	156,873	276,618
Morocco,.....	62,138
Texas,.....	303,847	937,072	281,199	1,218,271
Mexico,.....	4,175,001	969,938	1,545,403	2,515,341
Venezuela,.....	1,355,166	554,267	229,605	783,872
New Grenada,.....	217,382	57,922	77,329	135,251
Central America,.....	189,021	130,661	87,285	217,946

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	VALUE OF EXPORTS.		
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.
Brazil,	\$4,927,296	\$2,145,863	360,711	\$2,506,574
Argentine Republic,	293,562	280,144	89,132	369,276
Chaplatine Republic,	494,402	82,102	67,628	149,730
Chili,	1,616,859	1,372,254	356,575	1,728,829
Peru,	438,495			
Republic of Ecuador,	28,685			
South America, generally,		96,042	28,291	124,333
China,	6,640,829	463,186	540,780	1,003,966
Europe, generally,		63,976		63,976
Asia, generally,	284,452	170,734	138,092	308,826
Africa, generally,	372,537	511,215	43,048	554,263
Arabia,				
West Indies, generally,		376,715	2,514	379,229
South Seas,	13,762	177,229	65,200	248,420
Sandwich islands,	16,293			
Atlantic Ocean,				
Northwest Coast of America,		720	540	1,260
Uncertain places,	1,525			
TOTAL,	107,141,519	113,895,634	18,190,312	132,085,946

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.

Statistical view of the navigation of the United States, exhibiting the tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country in 1840.

COUNTRIES.	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the Uni. States.
Russia,	15,724	6,018	2,820	477
Prussia,	536	506		1,577
Sweden and Norway,	7,145	1,118	10,899	5,980
Swedish West Indies,	1,655	2,203		120
Denmark,		324	286	1,352
Danish West Indies,	28,375	27,700	1,412	1,197
Hanse Towns,	12,717	17,849	38,177	42,324
Holland,	15,133	31,747	3,986	11,920
Dutch East Indies,	2,364	1,828	370	481
Dutch West India,	7,820	3,790	893	1,150
Dutch Guiana,	6,214	5,729		
Belgium,	9,435	19,507	582	7,667
England,	368,772	388,512	128,001	129,212
Scotland,	8,729	10,799	12,865	10,430
Ireland,	965	2,732	11,922	351
Gibraltar,	2,155	11,312		877
Malta,	145	449		
Mauritius,	257		510	
Cape of Good Hope,	922	650		160
British East Indies,	9,715	5,742		
British West Indies,	54,899	78,224	29,294	13,364
British Honduras,	3,943	5,048	1,353	1,700

NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.—Continued.

COUNTRIES	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	<i>Entered the United States.</i>	<i>Cleared from the Uni. States.</i>	<i>Entered the United States.</i>	<i>Cleared from the Uni. States.</i>
British Guiana,.....	1,298	6,349	5,288	1,233
British American colonies,.....	373,149	357,073	387,947	401,805
Australia,.....	1,868	1,368	232
British African ports,.....	143	312	205
France,.....	113,907	153,128	25,892	25,409
French West Indies,.....	13,757	25,612	5,303	1,255
French Guiana,.....	3,177	1,925
Bourbon,.....	242
Hayti,.....	21,193	20,663	967	2,818
Spain,.....	35,447	8,166	2,792	2,419
Teneriffe, and other Canaries,.....	2,642	713	473	368
Manilla, and the Philippine islands,.....	3,570	809
Cuba,.....	174,920	192,548	14,776	15,679
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	40,822	22,559	713	952
Portugal,.....	14,039	3,851	2,365	567
Madeira,.....	2,470	3,963
Fayal, and the other Azores,.....	1,211	1,089
Cape de Verd islands,.....	384	2,262	946
Italy,.....	8,363	8,071	1,436	2,602
Sicily,.....	17,622	1,006	4,578	3,176
Ionian islands,.....
Greece,.....
Trieste,.....	3,025	11,828	1,842	6,081
Turkey,.....	5,443	2,187	800
Morocco,.....	145	121
Texas,.....	26,152	41,177	961	530
Mexico,.....	14,733	13,348	3,709	3,025
Venezuela,.....	13,605	9,386	1,173	920
New Grenada,.....	1,622	1,000	732	882
Central America,.....	446	721
Brazil,.....	32,588	34,189	5,578	1,764
Argentine Republic,.....
Cisplatine Republic,.....	6,680	8,197	161	230
Chili,.....	4,862	7,414
Peru,.....	1,137	667
Republic of Ecuador,.....
South America, generally,.....	262
China,.....	14,771	3,360
Europe, generally,.....	196
Asia, generally,.....	3,462	2,787
Africa, generally,.....	6,156	7,133	771	900
Arabia,.....	320	320
West Indies, generally,.....	17,103	1,769
South Seas,.....	43,184	48,429
Sandwich Islands,.....
Atlantic Ocean,.....	878	4,096
Northwest Coast of America,.....	308	100
Uncertain places,.....	147	175	90
TOTAL,.....	1,576,946	1,647,009	712,363	706,486

The crews of the above tonnage are thus stated in the tables:—American tonnage entered the United States, in 1840, 1,576,946 tons; crews—men, 70,011; boys, 2,993. Cleared, 1,647,009 tons; men, 75,445; boys, 3,003. Foreign tonnage, entered, 712,363 tons; men, 40,980; boys, 746. Cleared, 706,486 tons; men, 40,886; boys, 412.

COMMERCE OF EACH STATE, 1840.

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, commencing on the 1st day of Oct. 1839, and ending on the 30th day of Sept. 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.			VALUE OF EXPORTS.						
	In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	DOMESTIC PRODUCE.			FOREIGN PRODUCE.			
				In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	In Amer. vessels.	In foreign vessels.	Total.	
Maine.....	\$504,183	\$124,579	\$628,762	\$959,903	\$50,007	\$1,009,910	\$12	\$8,347	\$8,359	\$1,018,269
New Hampshire.....	67,411	47,236	114,647	19,676	1,085	20,761	218	218	20,979
Vermont.....	404,617	404,617	305,150	305,150	305,150
Massachusetts.....	15,813,560	700,298	16,513,858	5,504,441	763,717	6,268,158	3,727,287	190,816	3,918,103	10,186,261
Rhode Island.....	274,534	274,534	203,006	203,006	3,983	3,983	206,989
Connecticut.....	270,411	6,661	277,072	518,066	144	518,210	518,210
New York.....	52,501,265	7,939,485	60,440,750	17,329,071	5,347,538	22,676,609	7,628,088	3,959,383	11,587,471	34,264,080
New Jersey.....	1,080	17,529	19,209	14,883	14,883	1,193	1,193	16,076
Pennsylvania.....	7,835,007	629,875	8,464,882	5,282,456	454,000	5,736,456	999,129	84,560	1,083,689	6,820,145
Delaware.....	802	802	37,001	37,001	37,001
Maryland.....	4,357,884	552,862	4,910,746	4,098,139	1,396,881	5,495,020	213,596	60,152	273,748	5,768,768
District of Columbia.....	76,637	43,215	119,852	643,950	107,479	751,429	926	1,568	2,494	753,923
Virginia.....	481,634	63,451	545,085	4,518,632	251,305	4,769,937	8,105	178	8,283	4,778,220
North Carolina.....	236,169	16,363	252,532	343,981	43,503	387,484	387,484
South Carolina.....	1,635,432	423,438	2,058,870	7,750,546	2,230,470	9,981,016	41,149	14,604	55,753	10,036,769
Georgia.....	357,203	134,225	491,428	3,979,912	2,883,047	6,862,959	6,862,959
Alabama.....	402,211	172,440	574,651	10,483,694	2,371,000	12,854,694	12,854,694
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....	7,274,309	3,398,881	10,673,190	27,182,807	5,815,252	32,998,059	959,807	279,070	1,238,877	34,236,936
Ohio.....	2,426	2,489	4,915	864,164	127,790	991,954	991,954
Kentucky.....	2,241	2,241
Tennessee.....	28,938	28,938
Michigan.....	137,225	1,385	138,610	162,229	162,229	162,229
Florida.....	126,775	63,953	190,728	1,829,191	21,518	1,850,709	7,866	275	8,141	1,858,850
Missouri.....	10,600	10,600
Total.....	92,802,352	14,339,167	107,141,519	92,030,898	21,864,736	113,895,634	13,591,359	4,598,953	18,190,312	132,085,946

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, IN 1840.
A Statement, exhibiting a condensed view of the tonnage of the several districts of the United States, on the 30th of September, 1840.

DISTRICTS.	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage of each district.
Pascamaquoddy, Maine,.....	3,259 18	8,912 54	12,171 72
Machias, do.....	895 29	10,951 93	11,847 27
Frenchman's Bay, do.....	2,250 90	18,113 40	20,365 35
Penobscot, do.....	6,124 37	31,006 13	37,130 50
Belfast, do.....	8,751 68	29,466 62	38,218 35
Waldoboro', do.....	13,006 13	39,988 78	52,997 29
Wiscasset, do.....	4,792 70	8,676 86	13,469 61
Bath, do.....	32,692 07	21,343 54	64,035 61
Portland, do.....	36,808 25	19,327 08	56,135 28
Saco, do.....	1,291 79	2,066 65	3,358 49
Kennebunk, do.....	3,422 08	3,710 85	7,132 93
York, do.....		1,200 16	1,200 16
Portsmouth, New Hampshire,.....	17,666 38	9,709 26	27,375 64
Newburyport, Massachusetts,.....	14,591 73	9,373 34	23,965 12
Ipswich, do.....		3,739 65	3,739 65
Gloucester, do.....	2,301 82	14,770 45	17,072 32
Salem, do.....	22,619 58	14,401 26	37,020 84
Marblehead, do.....	2,918 83	9,559 65	12,478 53
Boston, do.....	149,186 03	71,057 31	220,243 34
Plymouth, do.....	12,479 30	15,025 08	27,504 38
Fall River, do.....	1,583 75	7,232 15	8,815 90
New Bedford, do.....	45,708 33	43,381 03	89,089 36
Barnstable, do.....	3,617 91	52,938 46	56,556 42
Edgartown, do.....	5,114 50	3,016 04	8,130 54
Nantucket, do.....	23,730 61	8,185 09	31,915 70
Providence, Rhode Island,.....	11,062 46	5,547 91	16,610 42
Bristol, do.....	8,893 58	6,996 52	15,890 15
Newport, do.....	5,529 07	5,395 11	10,924 18
Middletown, Connecticut,.....	942 28	13,288 61	14,230 89
New London, do.....	17,809 38	27,012 83	44,822 26
New Haven, do.....	4,454 19	7,046 60	11,500 79
Fairfield, do.....	428 43	15,965 90	16,394 38
Vermont, Vermont,.....		4,342 30	4,342 30
Champlain, New York,.....		1,477 39	1,477 39
Sackett's Harbor, do.....		3,637 28	3,637 28
Oswego, do.....		8,346 58	8,346 58
Niagara, do.....		230 89	230 89
Genesee, do.....		471 24	471 24
Oswegatchie, do.....		999 35	999 35
Buffalo Creek, do.....		4,916 00	4,916 00
Sag Harbor, do.....	7,821 71	12,583 86	20,405 62
New York, do.....	203,536 68	211,281 36	414,817 44
Cape Vincent, do.....		116 82	116 82
Perth Amboy, New Jersey,.....	672 29	17,171 21	17,843 50
Bridgetown, do.....		14,171 93	14,171 93
Camden, do.....		8,201 28	8,201 28
Newark, do.....	774 53	5,912 51	6,687 09
Burlington, do.....		3,851 94	3,851 94
Little Egg Harbor, do.....		4,795 74	4,795 74
Great Egg Harbor, do.....		16,364 40	16,364 40
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania,.....	52,268 46	51,675 71	10,3944 22
Presque Isle, do.....		3,369 05	3,369 05
Pittsburg, do.....		12,000 00	12,000 00
Wilmington, Delaware,.....	644 34	15,466 34	16,110 68

TONNAGE OF THE SEVERAL DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1882.—Continued.

DISTRICTS	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed ton- nage.	Total tonnage of each district.
New Castle, Delaware.....		3,661 02	3,661 02
Baltimore, Maryland.....	34,768 01	41,254 11	76,022 12
Oxford, do.....	97 87	13,828 16	13,926 08
Vienna, do.....	606 52	14,927 75	15,534 32
Snow Hill, do.....		7,640 73	7,640 73
Annapolis, do.....		4,519 49	4,519 49
St. Mary's, do.....		2,691 06	2,691 06
Georgetown, District of Columbia,.....	2,189 52	7,775 11	9,964 63
Alexandria, do.....	7,691 60	6,779 15	14,470 75
Norfolk, Virginia,.....	7,400 02	11,679 88	19,079 90
Petersburg, do.....	1,784 32	2,194 17	3,978 49
Richmond, do.....	3,515 13	3,396 24	6,911 37
Yorktown, do.....		1,512 68	1,512 68
East River, do.....		5,550 11	5,550 11
Tappahannock, do.....	634 56	3,957 32	4,591 88
Folly Landing, do.....	49 13	4,653 79	4,702 92
Yeocomico, do.....		3,387 82	3,387 82
Cherry Stone, do.....	122 56	1,852 18	1,974 74
Wheeling, do.....		2,460 40	2,460 40
Wilmington, North Carolina,.....	10,960 41	7,272 48	18,232 89
Newbern, do.....	2,357 84	1,420 40	3,778 29
Washington, do.....	2,588 30	2,813 46	5,401 76
Edenton, do.....			
Camden, do.....	674 03	7,454 03	7,728 08
Beaufort, do.....	117 92	1,856 41	1,974 38
Plymouth, do.....	961 83	1,355 41	2,317 29
Ocracoke, do.....	1,503 42	1,618 23	3,121 65
Charleston, South Carolina,.....	15,794 49	13,456 03	29,250 52
Georgetown, do.....	1,649 58	2,766 18	4,415 76
Beaufort, do.....			
Savannah, Georgia,.....	10,581 89	7,408 53	17,930 38
Sunbury, do.....			
Brunswick, do.....	661 07	833 84	1,494 91
Hardwick, do.....			
St. Mary's, do.....	1,489 32	1,265 03	2,754 35
Cuyahoga, Ohio.....		9,514 55	9,514 55
Sandusky, do.....		2,643 06	2,643 06
Cincinnati, do.....		12,052 27	12,052 27
Miami, do.....		2,232 09	2,232 09
Nashville, Tennessee,.....		4,733 36	4,733 36
Louisville, Kentucky,.....		1,591 86	1,591 86
St. Louis, Missouri,.....		11,259 00	11,259 00
Detroit, Michigan,.....		11,432 39	11,432 39
Michilimackinac, do.....		470 04	470 04
Mobile, Alabama,.....	8,696 78	8,546 89	17,243 79
Pearl River, do.....			
New Orleans, Louisiana,.....	49,075 74	77,537 01	126,612 75
Teche, do.....			
Pensacola, Florida,.....	929 88	1,992 09	2,922 09
St. Augustine, do.....			
Appalachicola, do.....	1,291 67	2,762 54	4,054 26
St. Marks, do.....			
Key West, do.....	1,977 55	1,497 25	3,474 80
Total,.....	899,764 76	1,280,999 35	2,180,764 16

A statement of the number and class of vessels built, and the tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, in 1840.

STATES.	CLASS OF VESSELS.						TOTAL TON'GE.
	Ships.	Brigs.	Sch'rs.	Sloops.	Steamboats.	T'ls & b'ls.	Tons 95ths.
Maine	50	56	75			181	38,936 89
New Hampshire.....	4		2			6	2,721 87
Massachusetts.....	25	11	76	1		113	17,811 50
Rhode Island.....	2	2	1	1		6	1,589 19
Connecticut.....		6	16	27		49	4,130 08
New York.....	6	13	21	24	8	72	13,786 05
New Jersey.....		3	32	73	1	109	6,791 92
Pennsylvania.....	6	6	12	78	1	103	8,135 73
Delaware.....			5	3	1	9	757 58
Maryland.....	3	10	96	1	1	111	11,736 53
District of Columbia..	1	1				2	430 57
Virginia			8	3	1	12	925 11
North Carolina.....		1	20	3		24	1,295 65
South Carolina.....				1	1	2	306 03
Georgia.....					2	2	253 90
Ohio.....			5	3	25	33	4,021 66
Tennessee.....					1	1	381 55
Kentucky					5	5	1,090 53
Missouri.....					8	8	1,210 00
Alabama.....				2		2	148 49
Louisiana.....			5	2	5	12	1,196 87
Michigan.....			3	1	3	7	585 36
Florida.....			1	1		2	65 57
Total.....	97	109	378	224	63	871	118,309 23

A comparative view of the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage of the United States from 1815 to 1840, inclusive.

YEARS.	TONS AND 95THS.		
	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled & licensed.	Total tonnage.
1815.....	854,294 74	513,833 04	1,368,127 78
1816.....	800,759 63	571,458 85	1,372,218 53
1817.....	809,724 70	590,186 66	1,399,911 41
1818.....	606,088 64	619,095 51	1,225,184 90
1819.....	612,930 44	647,821 17	1,260,751 61
1820.....	619,047 53	661,118 66	1,280,166 24
1821.....	619,896 40	679,062 30	1,298,958 70
1822.....	628,150 41	696,548 71	1,324,699 17
1823.....	639,920 76	696,644 87	1,336,565 68
1824.....	669,972 60	719,190 37	1,389,163 02
1825.....	700,787 08	722,323 69	1,423,110 77
1826.....	737,978 15	796,211 68	1,534,190 83
1827.....	747,170 44	873,437 34	1,620,607 78
1828.....	812,619 37	928,772 50	1,741,391 87
1829.....	650,142 88	610,654 88	1,260,797 81
1830.....	576,475 33	615,301 10	1,191,776 43
1831.....	620,451 92	647,394 32	1,267,846 29
1832.....	686,989 77	752,460 39	1,439,450 21
1833.....	750,026 72	856,123 22	1,606,149 94
1834.....	857,438 42	901,468 67	1,758,907 14
1835.....	885,821 60	939,118 49	1,824,940 14
1836.....	897,774 51	984,328 14	1,882,102 65
1837.....	810,447 29	1,086,238 40	1,896,685 69
1838.....	822,591 86	1,173,047 89	1,995,639 80
1839.....	834,244 54	1,262,234 27	2,096,478 81
1840.....	899,764 76	1,280,999 35	2,180,764 16

COMMERCIAL TIME-TABLE.

The subjoined calculations of time, (says the Savannah Georgian,) were made by an eminent practical accountant. We have seen several other tables, intended to expedite the business of the counting-house, but prefer the present form, because it combines conciseness and accuracy with simplicity of arrangement. Commercial gentlemen will find, at a glance, that it is admirably suited to facilitate the equation of payments, finding dates for casting interest, &c.

TIME-TABLE,

Showing the number of days from any day in one month to the same day in another month.

To	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Ap'l	May	Ju'e.	July	Aug	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
From January,.....	365	31	59	90	120	151	181	212	243	273	304	334
February,.....	334	365	28	59	89	120	150	181	212	242	273	303
March,.....	306	337	365	31	61	92	122	153	184	214	245	275
April,.....	275	306	334	365	30	61	91	122	153	183	214	244
May,.....	245	276	304	335	365	31	61	92	123	153	184	214
June,.....	214	245	273	304	334	365	30	61	92	122	153	183
July,.....	184	215	243	274	304	335	365	31	62	92	123	153
August,.....	153	184	212	243	273	304	334	365	31	61	92	122
September,.....	122	153	181	212	242	273	303	334	365	30	61	91
October,.....	92	123	151	182	212	243	273	304	335	365	31	61
November,.....	61	92	120	151	181	212	242	273	304	334	365	30
December,.....	31	62	90	121	151	182	212	243	274	304	335	365

EXPLANATION.—The months counted from, are arranged in the left hand vertical column—those counted to, are in the upper horizontal line,—the days between those periods are found in the angle of intersection, in the same way as in a common multiplication table. If the end of February be included between the two points of time, a day must be added in leap years.

Suppose it were required to know the number of days from the 4th of March to the 15th of August? In the horizontal line, marked March, and in the column under August, we find 153, which is the number of days from the 4th of March, (or any other day of March,) to the 4th (or same) day of August; but as we want the time to the 15th of August, 11 days (the difference between 4 and 15) must be added to 153, which shows that 164 is the number of days between the 4th of March and 15th of August.

Again, were the number of days required between the 10th of October and the 3d of June in the following year—opposite to October and under June, we find 243, which is the number of days from the 10th of October to the 10th of June; but as we sought the time to the 3d only, (which is 7 days earlier,) we must deduct 7 from 243, leaving 236, the number of days required: and so of others.—See *Foster's Commercial Summary for Merchants, Bankers, &c.*

INDIA SUGAR AND RUM.

The following is a comparative statement of the quantity of sugar and rum shipped from Calcutta in each of the four years, ending the 30th November last, viz:

	<i>Maunds of</i> <i>Sugar.</i>	<i>Gallons of</i> <i>Rum.</i>
1837.....	585,114	78,291
1838.....	643,770	139,364
1839.....	740,946	244,576
1840.....	1,409,773	951,519

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE TARIFF OF 1841.

By the Act of September 11, 1841, recently published, all articles of import which have been heretofore free of duty, or subject to less rates of duty than 20 per cent. ad valorem, are from and after the first day of October instant, subjected to a uniform rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of a long list of articles enumerated in the act, which continue to be free, or subject to the duties previously imposed. These articles are more specifically enumerated in the alphabetical list given below, as prepared at the custom house in Boston, and originally published in the Atlas of that city.

All articles not here enumerated, if by previous laws subject to higher duties than 20 per cent. ad valorem, continue to pay the same rates, until reduced by the operations of the act of 1833. French wines, however, until the second day of February next, will be charged with duty at the rates of 6 cents a gallon for red in casks, 10 cents for white in casks, and 22 cents a gallon for all French wines in bottles. Railroad iron is charged with duty at the rate of 20 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of such as shall be imported under the act of July 14, 1832, prior to March 3, 1843, for any incorporated company whose railroad is already commenced, and which shall be necessary to complete the same.

ARTICLES PAYING A DUTY OF LESS THAN 20 PER CENT. AD VALOREM, CONTINUED AT THEIR PRESENT RATES.

Indigo, 15 per cent. duty; acid, muriatic, 12½ per cent.; acid, sulphuric, or oil of vitriol, 3 cents per lb.; acid, tartaric, 15 per cent.; alum, \$2 50 per cwt.; aquafortis, 12½ per cent.; blue vitriol, 4 cents per lb.; calomel, 15 per cent.; carbonate of soda, 15 per cent.; corrosive sublimate, 15 per cent.; combs, 15 per cent.; copperas, \$2 per cwt.; lead, nitrate of, 12½ per cent.; lead, red, ground in oil or dry, 5 cents per lb.; lead, white, ground in oil or dry, 5 cents per lb.; lead, sugar of, 5 cents per lb.; manganese, 15 per cent.; magnesia, sulphate of, 15 per cent.; potash, bichromate of, 12½ per cent.; potash, chromate of, 12½ per cent.; potash, prussiate of, 12½ per cent.; salts, glauber, 2 cents per lb.; salts, rochelle, 15 per cent.; sulphate of quinine, 15 per cent.; sublimate, corrosive, 75 per cent.; saltpetre, refined, 3 cents per lb.

ARTICLES FREE OF DUTY.

Alba canella; alcornoque; aloe; amber; ambergris; anatomical preparations; animals imported for breed; aniseed; do., oil of; annatto; antimony; crude, do.; regulus of; antiquities, all collections of, especially imported by order and for the use of any society incorporated for philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or by order and for the use of any seminary of learning, school, or college; apparel, wearing, and other personal baggage in actual use; Arabic gum; argol; arrow root; articles, all, imported for the use of the United States; asafoetida; ava root.

Baggage, personal, in actual use; balsam, tolu; bamboos, in an unmanufactured state; barilla; bark of the cork tree, unmanufactured; bark, Peruvian; bars, brass in; bars, copper in; bars, tin in; beans, vanilla; berries, juniper; berries, used in dyeing; lobes tea (see teas); bole, Armenian; books, specially imported; bars, brass, old, fit only to be manufactured; Brazil wood; Braziletto; breed, animals imported for; brimstone or sulphur; bristles; bullion; Burgundy pitch; burr stones, unwrought; busts of marble, bronze or plaster and alabaster; do. or plaster of Paris, specially imported.

Cabinets of coin, specially imported, &c.; calaminaris lapis; camwood, cancia alba; cantharides; cascarrilla; castanes; casts, specially imported; catsup; chalk; camomile flowers; charts, specially imported, &c.; clay, unwrought; cloth rags of any kind; cochineal; coculus indicus; colombo root; collections of antiquities, specially imported, &c.; coins, cabinets of, specially imported, &c.; coin, gold; coin, silver; copper, imported in any shape, for the use of the mint, copper in pigs and bars; copper in plates and sheets, or plates of which copper is the material of chief value, suited for the sheathing of vessels; copper, old, fit only to be remanufactured; coriander seed; cork tree, bark of, unmanufactured; cream of tartar; crude antimony; crude saltpetre; crude tartar; cummin seed.

Drawings and paintings, specially imported; dyeing, all vegetables and articles used

principally for and in composing dyes, and all other dyeing drugs, and materials for composing dyes, except alum, copperas, blue vitriol, bichromate of potash, prussiate of potash, nitrate of lead, aquafortis, tartaric acids, manganese, muriatic or sulphuric acids, the duties on which being retained, the articles will be found under their appropriate heads in the tables of ad valorem and specific duties; dye woods.

Elephant's teeth, and other animals; emery; engravings, specially imported; epaulets, of gold and silver, and wings; etchings, specially imported.

Flax, unmanufactured; flaxseed; flints and ground flints; flowers, camomile; foil, tin; furs of all kinds, undressed; fustic.

Gamboge; gems, specially imported; gold coin; gold, epaulets of; gum Arabic; gum senegal; gypsum, or plaster of Paris.

Harlem oil; hair pencils; hair unmanufactured; hartshorn; hemlock; henbane; hides, raw; horns, ox and other; horn, plates for lanterns; horns, other than tips; hyson tea.

Imperial tea; implements and tools of trade, of persons arriving in the United States; India rubber; indicus coculus; instruments, philosophical, specially imported, &c.; inventions, models of; ipecacuanha; iris or orris root; ivory unmanufactured.

Juniper berries; juniper, oil of.

Kelp; kermes.

Lastings; lac dye; horn, plates for; lapis calaminaris; linseed; logwood.

Machinery, models of; madder; madder root; manna; maps, specially imported, &c.; marrow and soap stuffs, and soap stocks; models, specially imported; mineralogy, specimens in; mint, copper in any shape imported for the use of; modellings, specially imported; models of inventions; modellings of machinery; mother of pearl; mohair; musk.

Natural history, specimens in; needles; Nicaragua wood; nuts and berries used in dyeing; nux vomica.

Oil of almonds; oil of aniseseed; oil of harlem; oil of juniper; old brass, fit only to be remanufactured; old copper, do. do. do.; old pewter, do. do. do.; opium; oil of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of said fisheries; orris, or iris root; ox horns.

Palm oil; palm leaf; paintings, work of American artists abroad; paintings, specially imported; pastel, or wood; pearl, mother of; pencils, hair; personal baggage in actual use; persons arriving in the United States, tools or implements of trade of; Peruvian bark; pewter, old, fit only to be remanufactured; philosophical apparatus, specially imported, &c.; pigs, brass in; pigs, copper in; pitch, Burgundy; plants; plaster of Paris; plates or sheets, tin in; plates, horn, for lanterns; platina; preparations, anatomical; prunella, used for making buttons and shoes.

Quicksilver.

Rags of any kind of cloth; ratans, unmanufactured; raw skins, and undressed; red wood; reeds, unmanufactured; regulus of antimony; rhubarb; root, arrow; root, asa; root, colombo; root madder; root, orris, or iris; rotten stone; rubber, India.

Saffron; sage; saltpetre, crude; sandal wood, imported in a powerful state, in which it is used exclusively in dyeing; sarsaparilla; sculpture, specimens of, specially imported, &c.; seed, coriander; seed, cummin; seed, anise; senegal gum; senna; sheathing copper, suited for sheathing vessels; sheets, brass in; sheets, copper in; sheets, tin in; shell-lac; shells, tortoise; silver coin; silver, epaulets of; skins, raw; smaltz; soda ash; sou-chong tea (see tea); specimens in mineralogy; specimens in natural history; spelter; sponges; statues, specially imported, &c.; statuary, works of American artists abroad; statuary, specially imported; stone, polishing and rotten; stones, burr, unwrought; sulphur of brimstone; sumac.

Tapioca; tartar, cream of; do., crude; tamarinds; teas of all kinds, imported from China or other places; teeth, of elephants and of other animals; teutenegue; tin, in plates, sheets, pigs, or bars; tinfoil; tips; tolu, balsam; tools of trade of persons arriving in the United States; tortoise shell; trees; turmeric; turtle shell.

Undressed furs; United States, all articles imported for the use of; unmanufactured bark of the cork tree; do. flax; do. hair; do. ivory; do. ratans; reeds; unwrought burr stones; unwrought clay.

Valonia, or velania, or dye staff; vanilla beans; vegetables, such as are used principally in dyeing and composing dyes; vomica nux.

Wearing apparel, and other personal baggage in actual use; woad, or pastel; woods, for dyeing, of all kinds; wood, Brazil; wood, log; wood, Nicaragua; wood, red; wood, sandal, in a powerful state, in which it is used exclusively in dyeing; wool, unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation shall not exceed 8 cents per lb., shall be imported free of duty; and if any wool, so imported, shall be fine wool, mixed with

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material, and thus reduced in value to 8 cents per lb., or under, the appraiser said wool at such price as in their opinion it would have cost had it been mixed, and a duty thereon shall be charged in conformity with such appraisement, that where wool of different qualities is imported in the same bale, and any part thereof is worth more than 8 cents a pound, valued as aforesaid, it shall pay a duty of 20 per cent.

SILVER CURRENCY OF CUBA.

Don Juan Manuel de Anglona, late governor-general, by an edict of February 18, 1840, ordered that the pesetas called Isabelline pesetas, should circulate at five for a dollar, instead of four, as before, and sueltas at one and a half reales. This disposition was approved by the home government, but it made no provision for the indemnification of the holders of the money.

The present governor, by the new edict, makes a similar change in the Sevillian pesetas, which, after the 4th of October, were to circulate at the rate of five for a dollar, instead of four, as heretofore, and the sueltas at ten for a dollar. The government, however, will make good the loss to holders, for which purpose a duty of one half per cent is to be laid on all imports and exports.

The silver currency of Havana will therefore consist henceforth of—

The <i>real de vellon</i> , or half real, of provincial coinage, worth	5 cents.
The half real with pillars (four-pence-half-penny).....	6½ "
The <i>real nominal</i> , or provincial real	10 "
The pillared real, or the corresponding coinage of the Spanish American states, (ninepence).....	12½ "
The Sevillian <i>peseta</i> (pintareen).....	20 "
The pillared <i>peseta</i> , or corresponding coin of Spanish America (quarter dollar)	25 "

This document announces that, in order to facilitate business transactions, a copper coinage will soon be introduced.

REGULATIONS FOR THE COMMERCE OF YUCATAN.

The ports licensed for foreign trade are Campeachy and Sisal. Vessels arriving from foreign ports pay a tonnage duty of \$1 50 per ton, of measurement according to their register. On the arrival of a vessel, the captain shall not land, or receive any one on board, until he has been visited by the health officer, and customhouse officer, to the latter of whom he shall show his manifests. If he is not visited in twenty-four hours after coming to anchor, he may land, bringing all his papers with him for inspection. Foreign vessels will be required to present triplicate manifests, containing the name of the vessel, its commander, its tonnage, names of crew, port whence she sailed, and day of departure; the number of bales, boxes, packages, and parcels, with the names of consignees, and general statement of contents; the day and hour of delivery of the manifests, endorsed by the officer, who shall forthwith proceed to seal the hatches. With the manifests he shall also present his clearance from the port whence he sailed. The captain shall also give in a list of all the trunks and packages of baggage of his passengers.

FAIRBANK'S PLATFORM SCALES.

Draw the attention of our merchants to this excellent article, advertised in the present number of this magazine. An instrument of such accuracy and weighing is an invaluable acquisition to every correct dealer.

